

1-1-1969

The effects upon attitudes of a short-term intensive vocational guidance workshop.

Beatrice Orr Pressley

University of Massachusetts Amherst

Follow this and additional works at: https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1

Recommended Citation

Pressley, Beatrice Orr, "The effects upon attitudes of a short-term intensive vocational guidance workshop." (1969). *Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014*. 2796.

https://scholarworks.umass.edu/dissertations_1/2796

This Open Access Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. It has been accepted for inclusion in Doctoral Dissertations 1896 - February 2014 by an authorized administrator of ScholarWorks@UMass Amherst. For more information, please contact scholarworks@library.umass.edu.

THE EFFECTS UPON ATTITUDES OF A
SHORT-TERM INTENSIVE VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE WORKSHOP

A Dissertation Presented

By

Beatrice Orr Pressley

Submitted to the Graduate School of the
University of Massachusetts in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

June, 1969

Major Subject: Education

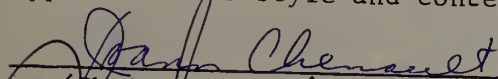
THE EFFECTS UPON ATTITUDES
OF AN INTENSIVE, SHORT-TERM VOCATIONAL WORKSHOP

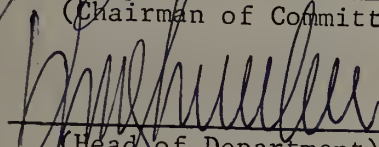
A Dissertation

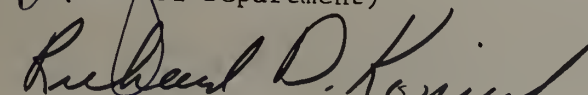
By

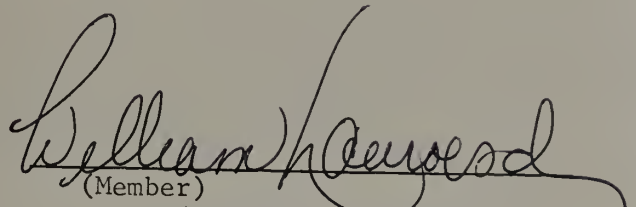
Beatrice Orr Pressley

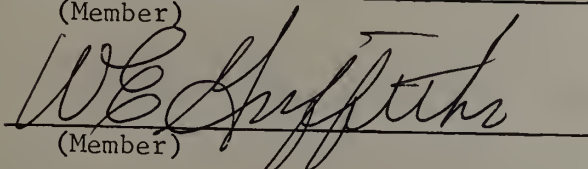
Approved as to style and content by:

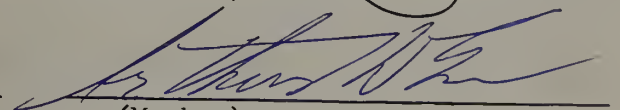

(Chairman of Committee)


(Head of Department)


(Member)


(Member)


(Member)


(Member)

June 1969

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	Page
I. NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM	1
Background	1
Significance of the Problem	9
Statement of the Problem	11
Definition of Terms	12
Limitations of the Study	13
II. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	14
Section A: Theoretical Approaches	14
Section B: Review of Research Related to Career Development	19
Section C: Research Related to Attitude Change	28
III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES	43
Method of Research	43
Overview of the Study	44
Experimenters	45
Population and Sample	45
Instrumentation	46
Experimental Treatment	49
Hypotheses	53
Method of Analysis	55
IV. ANALYSIS OF DATA	56
Section A: Matching Procedures	56
Section B: Changes in Scores	59
Section C: Relationship Between Pretest and Posttest Scores	60
Section D: Direction of Change in Attitude Scales	61
V. DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS	62
Section A: Discussion	62
Section B: Summary and Conclusions	64
Section C: Implications for Further Research	67

BIBLIOGRAPHY	69
------------------------	----

APPENDICES:

I. Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism	82
II. Berger Scale of Acceptance of Self and Others . .	85
III. Volsky Scale (Schedule A)	89
IV. Volsky Scale (Schedule B)	92
V. 16-PF	96
VI. PROJECT: INSPIRE--1969 Participant Responses . . .	103

CHAPTER I

NATURE AND SCOPE OF THE PROBLEM

Background

The nation is concerned about realizing full employment and the best possible utilization of human resources. As a key means of implementing these goals, the schools have been assigned a responsibility for an individual's preparation in the economic life of American society. Within the schools, guidance personnel have been entrusted with a major portion of this responsibility.

A retrospective assessment of the world today underscores the unparalleled importance of the force of change. Emerging is a new commitment to problems of which we have been previously only dimly aware. The rapid, dynamic pace of change of all kinds--technological, scientific, economic, and social--is being posed to educators at all levels. An essential aspect of that change is the increasing dependence of human life on knowledge and information and the organized use of these commodities so that the individual may come closer to self-fulfillment. The technological and intellectual fruits of historical achievement provide surpassed resources and an urgent need to accelerate and extend the development of human capabilities.

The welfare of our people is substantially dependent upon the effective development, deployment, and utilization of persons for work in a wide spectrum of occupations. The importance of work as a human experience is well recognized (Arendt, 1958; Borow, 1964; Levenstein, 1966; Tilgher, 1931). Work can be viewed as man's means, end, or instrument. It largely determines his way of life. The propensity for

work is highly reinforced in our society. And yet, shifts and changes are making it increasingly difficult to relate successfully to a number of work-related elements in life. Job displacement, general needs for more and different skills, mobility of society are just a few of the complex and far reaching ramifications of change which affect the individual vocationally.

A sprouting technology has transformed the job structure. Old jobs are disappearing; new ones are emerging at a swift pace. In the past 30 years, the professional segment of the labor force has expanded about 50 percent. The technical support field has shown even a faster growth rate. White collar jobs exceed blue collar ones; production jobs are diminishing in relation to service occupations. There are 35,000 definitions of occupations in the Third Edition of the Dictionary of Occupational Titles published in 1965 by the United States Department of Labor as compared with 22,000 in 1949. The drastic shift from a rural to an urban economy, the emergence of the white-collar group as the majority (led in particular by professional, clerical, and sales groups), the stable position of the skilled craftsman, and the rapid decline of unskilled jobs are a major reflection of some of the country's most important social and economic changes.

Not only is the occupational structure being altered but there is a modification in the meaning and value attached to the concept of work (Denney, Glazer, Riesman, 1950; Tilgher, 1962; Whyte, 1956). Traditional incentives toward work are being rendered obsolete by technology of abundance. Regardless of how a society can guarantee to all its citizens equal access to that abundance, there is a special

question of what happens to man, his attitudes, and his understanding and relationship to work. Man's need for achievement may be satisfied less and less by his job. As personal economic incentives diminish in intensity, other psychological needs will become more significant.

With the advent of automation comes the increase of alienation because the sense of personal contribution to production is undermined.

While the individual still plays a part because of the very complexity and interdependence created by increased population and technology of affluence, there has been no restoration of the individual's personal involvement in the tasks he performs.

Developing demographic characteristics of this country profoundly affect the social context of work. In a sophisticated, industrial economy a number of changes in the economic base will affect the very geography of jobs. Some areas will blossom with economic opportunities and others will become depressed areas with substantial and consistent unemployment. As there is a greater shift from an agricultural base to a mobile, service-producing base and transportation, machinery, and fuel free industries from fixed locational factors, geographic changes will continue. The internal migration has been a prime symbol of the world of work during the past half century and does not appear to be likely to decline.

The effect of all these influences has been unexorably toward more education and training requirements for jobs. The upward shift in occupational structure and an increase in extent and complexity of training have made the qualitative dimension of prerequisites for employment particularly significant.

The implications for education to meet the needs of the changing times are many and diffuse. Varied programs will have to be extended at all levels to satisfy individual differences and needs. Responsibility must be taken for integrating the intellectual and liberating aims of education with the economic and vocational goals. Preparation for careers should be an integral part of formal school experiences. Education, training, guidance, and other factors in the development of the individual must be seen as aspects of a connected process, not isolated functions to be performed by disparate professions.

The "knowledge explosion" is a phenomenon which will continue to influence our culture at an accelerated rate. It is no longer appropriate to assume that the older generations must transmit knowledge to the youth. In many cases the young will best understand the new situation because they have been reared with it. A significant portion of factual knowledge will be outdated in a few years. Thus information will often have to be presented as tentative, and emphasis will be on problem-solving behaviors. Such a situation challenges an educational system and society for it requires that we no longer assume that what is believed to be true now is true and the interrelatedness of issues and facts must be recognized and dealt with. Retraining and relearning will play an essentially larger part in education and the process of learning itself may take on a new image. The term "education" will cease to be restricted to that which takes place in school buildings. Education will be conceptualized as encompassing a broader range of learning experiences which are both formal and informal.

A person strives to solve problems as they are encountered, and yet if the individual is not informed about, does not understand, or does not appreciate the variety of factors which are relevant to his choice and decision-making, he will be unable to choose optimally. His decision making is dependent upon knowledge and information. He must consciously utilize these in order to estimate the appropriateness of a choice and to increase and then evaluate the number of significant alternatives of action available to him.

In the course of each person's growth and development are complex and difficult choices and decisions. Preparation for and the selection of a career is one of the most important of these choices. Neither the Nation nor the individual can afford a vague and haphazard approach to career choice. As the world of work involves greater specialization and the knowledge required for appropriate and timely action grows more complex, the individual must plan, train, and choose in anticipation of future opportunities.

Such concepts as occupation and career must be redefined to include a lifetime, not a single instance, of choice and change. Advance planning based on long-range assessment is necessary for rational preparation for the world one will work in. This must be done before one can prepare for what one will work at. If jobs are to be considered as containing clusters of personal and technical skills and training and are designed to develop skills which are usable and/or adaptable to a variety of different jobs, then more and better data about job characteristics and requirements as they relate to people must be provided. People must learn to use these data, design necessary technology to provide access to them, and develop means of evaluating results.

The world of work can no longer be compartmentalized neatly into definable occupational fields with clearly marked paths of entry because occupations and the skills demanded by them continue to change rapidly with new occupations, new specialties, and new jobs emerging continuously. Even after entry the probability is that new fields with their own new needs for entry will have to be faced all over again since the average man will hold 12 jobs in a 46-year worklife and most of these job shifts involve change in both occupation and industry. Only one man in five will remain in the same major occupational category for his entire working life. For the young, then, the problem of education for vocation is not to train for the first or second job, it is to provide an optimal base for lifetime learning. In supplying realistic occupational information through its curriculum and counseling the school should not merely guide the early years of a student's career, it should also "innoculate" him against premature vocationalism. The best vocational education would seem to be a good general education accentuating basic literacy, disciplined work habits, and adaptability. If half the young people will one day hold jobs not now in existence, if in his worklife the average man holds a dozen or more jobs, most of them unrelated in function, if the pace of technological change is increasing, then it seems senseless to increase specific job training in schools. That would be education for obsolescence.

While choice and decision-making related to educational and vocational planning are valid and inescapable concerns of education (Clarke, Gelatt, & Levine, 1965; Dilley, 1967; Hilton, 1962; Horner, 1967; Hosford, 1967; Katz, 1966; Varenhorst, 1966), the schools have

not kept pace with the growing body of theoretical knowledge and research related to career development. They have not really considered the implications of the increasing amount of literature constituting a subsistence of occupational behavior as well as the effect of technological and societal changes on human work. Greater concern about problems of occupational planning and adjustment makes it particularly timely for educators to examine the potential contributions which career development concepts hold for the school curriculum.

Career development theory assumes that vocationally relevant behavior begins in early childhood and can best be studied as a progressive, on-going process; that its subprocesses can be meaningfully ordered according to psychological life stages; that each of these stages involves learning to cope with critical developmental tasks; that many of these tasks center on mastery behavior related to career choices and adjustments; that choices which the individual makes and the manner in which he enacts the resultant roles form a life sequence known as a career pattern. Career development, then, extends well beyond the acquisition of occupational information. One's values and attitudes toward work are of greater importance than the possession of knowledge related to a given vocation. One's orientation to the world of work would be a vital element in attainment of rewarding and ego-fulfilling style of life.

The virtual elimination of the child's role in work in our enormous complexity of modern industrial society results in the young child's naivete, bewilderment, and estrangement from the occupational world. However, though contemporary youth are walled off from direct confrontation with work, they nevertheless acquire from the culture powerful sets of attitudes toward work. Children's knowledge of jobs and

attained level of vocational development tend to rise as socio-economic status, intelligence, and school grades rise (Ginzberg, 1951; Thompson, 1966). The various sub-cultures provide a context in which the individual validates a vocational identity. Innate potentialities may set ultimate limits but a multitude of environmental factors explain varied forms of behavior. Vocational choice is affected by something other than individual needs and capabilities. External forces, including the cultural context, significantly influence vocational decisions (Benndict, 1960; Boulding, 1961; Foote, 1951; Linton, 1945).

For youth who are seriously disadvantaged by cultural deprivation, the prospect of work has a meaning which is sharply divergent from the meaning it potentially holds for more favored youth. Rather than being a virtue, a means to greater status, or upward social mobility, work to the disadvantaged person is often merely a means of raw economic survival. The deprived person is ordinarily incapable of long-term planning and training for occupational qualification and advancement. Because vocational counseling and application of occupational information tools will have a different impact and meaning, it may have to be handled in a different manner. If it is accepted that attitudes and values are developed in the early, formative years then a formalized approach to work in order to develop potential to the fullest possible level might best be inaugurated in the elementary school.

These concerns about problems of occupational planning and adjustment make necessary an examination of the potential contributions which career development concepts hold for the school curriculum.

Since the educational system impinges directly and indirectly on many aspects of the process of occupational decision making and determination, it is vital that the practices in the schools contribute to, rather than detract from, effective resolutions of job preparation and choice.

Significance of the Problem

We are living in a period of change that marks the turning point in human history. As an indication of the complexity of the society in which we are now dwelling, a major fact to be considered is that the amount of technical information being generated by scholarship, by business, by government, and by scientific research is doubling every 10 years and is likely to accumulate at an even faster rate in years to come. Many individuals and institutions have been evaluating the nature and scope of the scientific, social, and technological developments which are likely to occur in the future. Serious and consistent speculation about the next 20 years is an increasingly mandatory exercise for those who are to counsel, prepare, and educate those who are to live in the world of the next two decades. Advance planning and action based on long-range assessments of the world are necessary. It is essential to prophesy trends of the future in order to prepare tomorrow's adults and youth to deal with them. An important, identified phenomenon which cannot be ignored is the pervasive character of the changed and changing world of work.

Career development begins at birth and continues throughout a lifetime. All contacts with people, things, and ideas have potentialities for influencing career development. The concept that vocational

development is a lifelong process has been discussed in many places but seldom implemented effectively. Sporadic, incidental exposures to the essence and meaning of work have not proved adequate. The nature of change in our society makes imperative the recognition that career development is a planned process, one that is inherently tied to self exploration, successive planning, periodic inventory of societal trends, intermittent exploratory experiences, and opportunities to re-assess self in relation to the exploratory opportunities.

There is a particularly acute problem in the area of vocational orientation and employment of those youth labeled culturally different or minority youth. Attitudes and value structures of children of poverty seem to be foreign to many educators. The environment appears to have obscured the appropriate translators of interest and capacities of these children to realizable occupational considerations and choices. Insensitivity of the schools to these specific problems seems to be prevalent.

There is general agreement among occupational experts as to the need for presenting and using occupational materials. It is also generally agreed that the most effective approach is to present occupational material as an integral part of the curriculum. At the presenttime, most teachers generally are ill-equipped both from the point of view of their actual knowledge of the world of work, the attitude as to the place of occupational materials in the curriculum, and knowledge of the process of career development. Many teachers, unaware of the vocational implications of their teaching, have little understanding of the changing occupational patterns and composition of society. The elementary school

staffs seldom have any realization of what happens to their former pupils occupationally when they leave school.

Statement of the Problem

The awareness of these situations is the basis for this study. The goals of the project are to design a short-term vocational guidance workshop to increase the competence of teachers and counselors in the elementary school to deal more effectively with the area of career development of youth, particularly emphasizing the needs of minority youth. "Dealing more effectively" is defined as:

1. making curricular changes which take into consideration the vital areas of career development
2. acquainting participants with employment opportunities available now and in the future so that they can better guide children vocationally
3. building effective lines of communication between the schools and business and industry
4. helping students to raise and broaden their occupational aspiration level.

The purpose of the investigation is to determine whether the attitudes of workshop participants toward career development of disadvantaged and minority youth will be changed by total experience in a workshop that is designed with this change as a goal. An evaluation will be made of whether educators change (a) attitudes about and increase their commitment toward working with disadvantaged children in the area of career development; (b) are more flexible in their outlook; (c) are more

accepting of others; and (d) are more likely to take positive action in their schools when presented with information and experiences involving nature of culture, job opportunities for the disadvantaged youth, vocational choice and development, and guidance techniques in the classroom.

In order to test these questions the following steps will be taken:

1. Evaluation will be made of the significant differences on scales of attitudes of commitment, realism, dogmatism, and acceptance of others between scores of inventories administered before the workshop and those of identical inventories administered after the workshop.
2. Comparison on the same attitude scales will be made of an equivalently matched control group without workshop experience and over the same amount of time.
3. The relationship of pre- and post-test scores for each group will be examined to measure attitudinal change.

Definition of Terms

ATTITUDE: An attitude is an inferred factor within the individual which involves a tendency to perceive and react in a particular manner toward some aspect of his environment.

CAREER DEVELOPMENT: The process by which an individual gradually acquires knowledge about himself, work, and how his potential may be fulfilled through education and vocation.

CAREER: The sequence of occupations, jobs, and positions through which a person progresses in his working life.

DISADVANTAGED: Populations which have in common such characteristics as low economic status, low educational achievement, under- or unemployment, limited potential for upward mobility.

DOGMATISM: A closed way of thinking, an authoritarian outlook in life, an intolerance toward those with opposing beliefs, and a sufferance of those with similar beliefs.

EDUCATION: The formal and informal process of imparting or acquiring knowledge, skills, and training.

Limitations of the Study

Any generalizations of the findings of the present study concerning attitude change are, of necessity, qualified by the following:

1. Geographic Location--participants in experimental and control groups were from the Greater Hartford (Connecticut) area. Although both groups may be considered representative of their population, the geographic area was somewhat narrow.
2. Nature of Attitude Change--it must be assumed that participants were answering honestly.
3. Definition of Attitudes--the concepts of commitment, realism, flexibility, and acceptance of others are limited by the test items used to measure these on the Volsky, Berger, and Rokeach scales.
4. Sample--because of constraints of Project Inspire, the experimental and control groups, while matched, were not randomly selected.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The foundations for this study are presented through the review of the literature. Section A is devoted to theoretical bases of career development. Section B contains a review of research related to career development. Included in Section C is research related to attitude change.

Section A: Theoretical Approaches

While work as a prominent feature in the lives of adults has long attracted the interest of social and behavioral scientists, explicit attention to theory building in career development has taken place primarily in the last two decades. The area of investigation has been concerned with trying to understand the elaborate socialization process which transforms the child into a working adult, as well as to discover the manner in which work is related to the life styles of persons in the labor force. Concerted efforts have been made to construct propositions and theories which explain the process by which vocationally relevant behavior is developed and expressed. A review of some widely accepted theories demonstrates the complexity of occupational motives and behaviors.

Ginzburg's theory. Eli Ginzburg and associates (Ginzberg, Ginsberg, Axelrod & Herman, 1951) present a theory of career development based on the belief that the individual selects an occupation, not through chance, but through developing patterns of activities which take place throughout all the formative years of a child's life and which are largely irreversible. The theory emphasizes the compromises that occur between the subjective elements and opportunities and limitations of reality, thus producing crystallization of occupational choice. They advocate a developmental approach to the question of occupational choice and view the process of vocational decision-making as being divided into three distinct phases: the period of fantasy choice characterized by the wish to be an adult; the period of tentative choice which encompasses early and late adolescence; and the period of realistic choice which is divided into substages labeled exploration, crystallization, and specification and which progresses through interest stage, capacity stage, value stage, and transition stage.

Holland's theory. John L. Holland (1966) bases his theory of vocational choice upon a study of personality types and model environments. He argues that by considering a person's interest and occupational and vocational knowledge as aspects of his personality, a broad range of human behavior can be integrated into a single theory of personality. With the belief in the relationship between vocation and personality, he assumes that people in a vocational group have similar personalities; that one's satisfaction, stability, and achievement in an occupation are dependent upon the congruence between his personality

and the other people in the environment where he works; and that the stereotypes often associated with vocations are important and reliable psychologically and sociologically. Holland's scheme of personality allows a simple ordering of a person's resemblance to each of the 6 models and provides the possibility of 720 different personality patterns. Holland stated, "a person's level of occupational choice and aspiration reflect his evaluation of himself, his feelings about his personal worth, and his satisfaction with himself." (p. 11)

Hoppock's theory. Robert Hoppock's theory (1963) contains 10 basic propositions, four of which are abstracted to provide a general indication of his rationale: 1. occupations are chosen to meet emotional needs and particular values, which are often unconscious; 2. the individual chooses an occupation he feels will best meet his needs; 3. needs may be intellectually perceived, or they may be only vaguely felt as attractions which draw the individual in certain directions and influence his choices; 4. occupational choice is subject to change as an individual's needs change or as he discovers another occupation which might better meet his needs. Hoppock states: "Psychological factors influence occupational choice by helping to determine the extent to which one perceives his own needs, accepts or suppresses them, faces the realities of employment opportunities and of his own abilities and limitations, and thinks rationally about all of these facts." (pp. 75-76)

Roe's theory. Anne Roe (1956) has proposed a need-oriented theory of occupational development; she regards the job as a principal source of need satisfaction. Her theory is based, in part, on Maslow's

(1954) hierarchy of preponent needs which suggest that higher order needs cannot appear until lower order needs are relatively satisfied. Roe emphasizes the importance of early satisfactions in the development of interests and the primary unconscious needs that determine the nature of these interests. Needs arise early in life and derive their strength primarily from parent-child interaction. Broadly psychoanalytically based, her model (1964, p. 203) was founded on studies of personality differences between occupational groups and upon studies which suggested that such differences were rooted in childhood experiences. In 1957 she proposed a paradigm for types of parent-child relationships which eventuate in orientation toward career development. According to Roe,

"Depending upon which of the home situations is experienced, there will be developed basic attitudes, interests, and capacities which will be given expression in the general pattern of the adult's life, in his personal relations, in his emotional reactions, in his activities, and in his vocational choice." (1957; p. 217)

Super's theory. Donald Super and associates (1957, 1960, 1962, 1963, 1964) have sought to develop and test a theory of vocational development which emphasizes life stages in the elaboration and crystallization of a vocational self concept. Super sees vocational development as a continuous process and views occupational choice as a process of synthesizing an individual's personal needs on one side and the economic and social demands of the culture on the other. He states:

"In expressing a vocational preference, a person puts into occupational terminology his idea of the kind of person he is; that in entering an occupation, he seeks to implement a concept of himself; that in getting established in an occupation he achieves self actualization. The occupation thus makes possible the playing of a role appropriate to the self concept. (1963; p. 22)

Vocational development tasks are those which relate either directly or indirectly to the world of work. The vocational life stages are the:

1. exploratory stage, involving tentative, transitional, and trial exploration;
2. establishment stage involving trial, stabilization, and advancement.

Corresponding to these stages and substages are five developmental tasks: (a) crystalizing a vocational preference; (b) specifying a vocational preference; (c) implementing a vocational preference; (d) stabilizing in an occupation; (e) consolidating status and advancing in an occupation.

Tiedeman and O'Hara's theory. David Tiedeman and Robert O'Hara (1963) have built a model which focuses upon Eric Erikson's (1950) notion of psychosocial developmental crises on the evolving self in a vocational situation. They theorize,

"Career development, then, is self-development viewed in relation with choice, entry, and progress in educational and vocational pursuits. It is an evolving conception of self-in-situation which is occurring over time in man who is capable of anticipation, experience, evaluation, and memory." (1963; p. 46)

Since one's identity is attained in a career, successful adjustment to the job necessitates the preliminary formation of an ego-identity. A career affords an opportunity for expression of hope and desire as well as limitation upon life. They analyze vocational development according to two principal periods of anticipation and implementation-adjustment. They believe that error and accident play an important role in vocational choice. Both the worker and job are viewed as multidimensional and a worker with given characteristics, abilities, and interests might find success in a number of different positions.

Section B: Review of Research Related to Career Development

Recently the literature has revealed an increasing interest in empirical research which is designed to test earlier speculations and assumptions and to give systematic structure to theory. Some criticisms of vocational development formulations point to the incompleteness of current theory. Tyler (1967) found that much of what is being discovered about the stages through which an individual passes in preparing to take his place in the world of work cannot be generalized beyond middle-class males. LoCascio (1967) stated that since career development of the disadvantaged is discontinuous, the theories of vocational development which tend to emphasize the uninterrupted and progressive aspects of behavior are of limited significance. Lyon (1965) proposed the need for occupational researchers to relate theory to cultural determinants rather than to conceptualize in terms of a universally applicable developmental psychology.

Sources of influence. Multiple factors have a bearing on the development of work-relevant behaviors. Significant reference groups are influential in determination of career choice.

From the inception of the vocational development process, the family constitutes a highly significant reference group. Kinnane and Pable (1962) verified certain family influences to be critical in the development of work values. Miller and Haller (1964) found occupational aspirations of children related to education of parents and the parents' aspirations for their offspring. However, Bernstein (1960) saw this to be true primarily in middle-class families. Stewart (1962) confirmed the relationship of parental education and children's aspirations. In contrast, Brunhan (1965) found parental influence on career development and choice to be slight.

Marr (1965) provides evidence of the importance of the father's influence on vocational development. Steimel and Suziedelis (1963) found the predominance of perceived influence by one parent over that of another had a demonstrable effect on the direction of interest development. Subjects reporting father influence measured more typically masculine interest. Parental influence on work values of women was studied by Kinnane and Bannon (1964). The predominance of perceived influence by a father whose level of education and training was superior to that of the mother appeared to result in a lower work-value orientation on the part of the daughter. Lee and King (1964) found no significant differences between level of girls' occupational preferences and level of mothers' suggested occupations.

The impact of social and cultural restrictions on the occupational socialization process was the focus of a number of studies. Calvin and Holtzman (1953), Coopersmith (1959), Fink (1962), Gay (1966), Williams and Cole (1968), Super (1953), and Levy (1956) have all found positive relationships between self concept, academic achievement, and aspirational level. Edwards and Webster (1963) found favorable self concepts to be related to higher aspirations of greater achievement and that low socio-economic ranked children had poorer self concepts than middle-class children. Asbury (1968) found vocational development of disadvantaged youth was not strongly related to realism of aspiration. Ginzburg (1951) confirmed that disadvantaged boys had lower levels of vocational aspirations. Herriott's (1961) study showed children of deprived backgrounds seldom thought of themselves in relation to higher education or job training. Nelson (1963) discovered children from higher socio-economic levels, with higher I. Q.'s knew more about occupations and discriminated better among those of different statuses than did children from lower socio-economic groups with lower I. Q. scores. Ausbel (1963), Sain (1965), Sewel, Halle, & Straus (1957), and Wylie (1963) confirmed that culturally disadvantaged children have a lack of well-formulated career plans. Thayer (1966) related that socio-economic position was found to be related to occupational interest in such a way that boys of different levels were found to show interest in occupations comparable in prestige and rank to the socio-economic level to which they belonged. Rosenberg (1965) found self esteem of males declines with socio-economic rank, and Moore and Holtzman (1965) reported culturally different youth more pessimistic

toward society and lower in personal judgments than white middle-class students.

Chansky (1965), matching 100 Negro and 100 Caucasian ninth-grade students on aptitude, found significant differences in the vocational interests of the two groups. Negro youth were more interested in occupations calling for social interaction, money exchanges, verbal fluency, and computational manipulations. Caucasians were inclined to occupations involving a concern with nature and machines. Comparing children in grades three through six from the inner city with a representative group from the suburbs, Clark (1967) reported that middle-class boys and lower-class girls express a significantly greater preference for white collar and professional occupations. In their perceptions of occupations, both lower-class boys and girls were significantly less able to supply appropriate job titles to stimulus figures, suggesting that some job models lack relevance for young people who are economically deprived. Himes (1964) concluded that race and class establish conditions under which lower-class Negro youth are socialized to certain work-related cultural deprivations which influence both their acceptance and performance as workers. Kvaraceus (1965), Uzzell (1961), and Henderson (1966) emphasize the necessity of providing occupational role models for disadvantaged youth in order to compensate for the lack of significant identification figures in the vocational realm.

Other influences have been found to be instrumental in the formulation of work-related attitudes and values. From their study of over 1100 working males, Duncan and Hodge (1963) concluded that formal education is a more potent factor than father's occupation in the son's level

of occupational achievement. The potential influence of the counselor as a molder of attitudes has been shown in a study by Krumboltz and Varenhorst (1965). Ninth-grade pupils were asked to indicate the extent of their agreement with three statements, each of which was attributed to a different one of three communicator groups: parents, peers, and counselors. The results clearly indicated the power of the counselor to shape attitudes. It must be noted, however, that these studies were not done with lower-class children. Patel and Gordon's (1960) research bears out that the peer group isn't the most powerful influencer of opinions of youth. Grant (1954) found, though, that a high percentage of high school students take educational problems to the counselor but only a small number take vocational problems to them. In another study, Krumboltz (1967) found that counselors have significant influence in bringing about certain kinds of adaptive behavior among students with whom they work. Gordon (1958) has reported that the manner in which the teacher relates to the child will influence whether or not the child develops a positive or negative self-concept. De Fleur (1963) found that children between ages of 6 and 13 increase their knowledge of occupational roles and status and that personal contact is a more effective educational influence than either television or general culture.

Occupational knowledge in elementary school. There is a considerable amount of research involving elementary school children and occupational knowledge. Simmons (1962) felt that the idea of elementary school children being "ignorant and fantasy ridden" in their occupational thinking was not true. A high correlation was found between

fourth-grade males' prestige rankings and adult prestige rankings and he interprets this as being a high degree of awareness on the part of elementary children. Earlier, Weinstein (1958) had also found recognition by children of the status of occupations. Gunn (1964) discovered an emerging awareness of cultural standards and assessments of occupations in the prestige rankings of children from first grade to high school. Simmons (1968) found accurate knowledge of socio-economic stratification of occupations begins in early elementary school. He also discovered these children are well prepared to receive occupational information.

Despite the fact that the children have been found to be accurate in some realms of occupational awareness, they are receiving relatively little helpful information. Tennyson and Monnens (1963-64), on the assumption that elementary reading texts may influence vocational aspirations, analyzed the reading series of six publishing companies. They found a disproportionate emphasis given to professional, service, and outdoor occupations and an equivalent lack of attention given to clerical, skilled, semi-skilled, and unskilled occupations. Lifton (1963) found a similar distortion in textbooks. He also noted that teachers had little accurate knowledge of the occupational world and used few examples in class. He further stated that the general tone toward vocational development in the elementary school is directed toward information about white collar jobs and higher education. Goodson (1962) developed realistic occupational information for use in the elementary schools in Atlanta, Georgia, to make up for the void presently existing.

There is evidence that elementary school children desire and can use relevant occupational information. Lifton (1959) studied the results of a survey using the SRA Youth Inventory and concluded that a large percentage of children from grades 4-8 were concerned about what they were going to be when they grew up. Kaback (1965) reported similar findings. Gribbons (1964) found that as early as the second grade children demonstrated increased awareness of interests and values in relation to occupational decisions. Nelson (1962) reported that most attitudes toward work are already established by the ninth grade and that the decision-making and choosing is going on with almost no effort to help children develop any objective understanding of the world of work while in school. This appears to be particularly important since early-school leavers are especially affected by the dearth of direction. Parker (1963), as a result of his research, related that the provision of more significant explanation of occupational activity as part of the curriculum should begin at least by the 5th or 6th grade. Since Bloom (1964) has found the first few years of school to be extremely significant in the development of a child's attitude toward long-range patterns of achievement, Brod (1967) emphasizes the need for providing preliminary career development activities in the elementary school.

Grell (1961) appealed for systematic readying for vocational development in kindergarten through the sixth grades. He feels much can be done in the area of work habits, attitudes toward work, relating oneself to work, establishing a tolerance and understanding for work that various people perform. Leonard and Stephens (1967) demon-

strated with their work in Detroit that teachers and students can become involved and participate successfully in a project designed to have them gain relevant vocational knowledge and experiences to further the developmental process. Wellington and Olechowski (1965) showed that teachers, without elaborate special training, could assist third graders to develop more understanding of the world of work and an appreciation and respect for work performed. Whitfield (1968) found that the most effective programs at the elementary level were those which presented pupils with a broad base for approaching preliminary occupational explorations.

Facilitation of career development. Whether or not career development is consciously promoted in the schools, it will take place. As shown, students do develop their own concepts about such matters as the place of work in man's life, the prestige hierarchy of occupations, and the relationship between education and jobs.

Jessee (1965) demonstrated that carefully planned guidance programs directed toward career development contributed more toward vocational maturity of students than did non-organized programs. Hill (1965) found that a planned approach to career development helped students to stabilize and confirm realistic vocational choices, in addition to enabling students to improve their estimate of the importance of vocational choice. A study revealing the value of presenting occupational information as part of classroom activities rather than as an extracurricular activity was attempted by Francis (1966). He found the approach served as a motivator in furthering the exploration of vocational information. Krasnow (1968) showed that in-service

training of teachers can promote a better understanding of vocational development and provide a vehicle for the implementation of an effective classroom-centered informational service. Super and Bachrach (1957) found opportunities to learn about the rules of work and to have after school experiences influenced the child's later reaction to work and to work-related situations.

Difficulties encountered by young people in comprehending the relationships of occupational life have prompted a growing interest in experimentation with procedures and media by which adequate information may be communicated. A conceptual model developed by Martin (1967) has provided a base for the design of new types of guidance materials and instructional approaches centering upon career planning for non-college bound and culturally disadvantaged youth. Drews (1965) demonstrated that a program which offers encouragement, models, and guidelines produces changes in attitudes towards learning and towards careers. Shirts (1966) adapted a simulation game for use with sixth graders.

Summary. A beginning has been made to establish, by means of empirical research, the fundamental assumptions on which theory of vocational development rests. An impressive body of knowledge about vocational development and behavior has been accumulated. The potential of education to provide exploratory experiences that develop broad occupational awareness remains an important area in which research should be done.

Section C: Research Related to Attitude Change

In the literature, attitude change generally is focused on variables which cause the change and secondarily with the change itself. Among the identified causal factors are types of communication, kind of argument used for persuasion, prestige and position associated with the communicator, and pressure to conform. While all of these variables will be considered, they are not of primary concern to the study. It is of importance to note that, in all studies, attitude change did take place for one reason or another.

An article by Sarnoff and Katz (1954) provides theoretical foundation for research in attitude change. This article discusses the hypothesis that all people alter their attitudes in terms of three motivational contexts--reality testing, reward and punishment, and ego defense. Attitudes may be a function of the range of information accessible to the individual in regard to the psychological object. In testing reality, man will cling to information which he has until it is replaced with more reliable information. The second context is reward and punishment which are involved when attitudes are adopted as a consequence of externally applied social sanctions. The third motivational basis for attitude change is ego defense. One may alter attitudes to gratify physiological or psychological needs, to resolve conflict, or permit the expression of unconscious impulses. The rational approach to attitude change involves attacking the cognitive object and frame of reference in which it is perceived. Attitudes may also be changed by the application of rewards and punishments and by

manipulating group norms. The authors have found the tapping of several motivational contexts to be most effective in producing attitude change.

In analyzing the psychological processes which are involved in attitudes, a distinction is usually made in terms of their cognitive, affective, and conative components (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962; Chein, 1951). The cognitive component of social attitudes includes the perceptions, beliefs, and expectations that the individual holds with respect to members of various social groups. The affective component of social attitudes refers to the fact that, in addition to the beliefs about particular groups, such attitudes usually entail feelings toward these groups as well. The conative component of social attitudes refers to the fact that, in addition to thinking and feeling in a certain way about a social group, there is usually also a policy orientation, i.e., a tendency to react in a particular way toward members of this group. Allport's (1952) study bears this out in finding that attitudes develop through integration of numerous specific responses of a similar type from an intense emotional experience or as a result of the influence of associates. Thus it can be seen that social attitudes, directed toward individuals and groups, are ego-involved, deep-lying general reaction tendencies.

In addition to investigating the many factors associated with attitude change, there is research which has also addressed itself to the question of the actual process or theory of attitude change. One theory which has stimulated a great deal of research is Festinger's (1957) "theory of cognitive dissonance." According to this theory,

when a person is confronted with a communication (e.g., an attempt at changing his attitude), the content of which is at variance with his present attitude, cognitive dissonance is created, i.e., psychological tension having drive characteristics and seeking reduction. Early investigators including Sumner (1907) who speaks of a "strain toward consistency," Lund's (1925) "need for consistency," Newcomb's (1953) "strain toward symmetry," and more recently, Heider's (1946, 1958) "balance theory" have influenced much of the research.

There is experimental evidence in favor of the assumption that cognitive dissonance may produce attitudinal change. McGuire's (1960a) research on cognitive consistency and attitudinal change proceeds from the postulate of cognitive consistency, demonstrating that mere temporally contiguous elicitation of opinions which are logically inconsistent with each other will bring a tendency toward consistency to bear upon them and thus produce attitudinal change. He demonstrated that the Socratic method of simply asking the person to state contiguously his opinions on logically related issues will result in attitudinal change. McGuire (1960a, 1960b) has furthermore shown that persuasive communications directed at an explicit issue tend to change, also, the subject's opinions on logically related derivative issues in a consistent direction, i.e., in the direction of reducing logical inconsistency. One of the derivations of Festinger's theory is that publicly making a statement or engaging in an act which is not consonant with one's private opinion can create cognitive dissonance and thus, under certain circumstances, lead to attitudinal change. King and Janis (1954, 1956) have shown that when

subjects are induced to engage in role-playing activity which is at variance with their private opinion, there will be a tendency for such behavior to result in attitude change. Rodgers (1968) found, through application of role-play techniques, attitudes changed when measured in terms of behavior change. Pettigrew (1964) demonstrated the effect of role-playing in changing deeply held attitudes. Festinger and Carlsmith (1959) in an experiment specifically designed to test derivations of dissonance theory, arrived at results which clearly showed that if a subject is induced to do or say something contrary to his private opinion, there will be a tendency for him to change his opinion so as to bring it into correspondence with that which he has done and said.

Osgood and Tannenbaum (1955) have presented a theoretical model of attitude change which considers that change can be determined by the source of the message, the original attitude toward the concept evaluated by the source of the message, and the nature of the evaluative assertion. Predictions of change are based on a combination of a principle of congruity, susceptibility, and principle of resistance.

Hilgard (1949) has investigated the relationship of verbal commitment to behavioral change. He describes the self-concept as a set of mediational or self-signaling language responses and shows how these verbal responses are important determinants in subsequent behavioral changes. He has thus developed the hypothesis that a verbal commitment to change is often a pre-condition of that change.

An attempt to establish that attitude change via communicated material could be affected by introduction of the prestige variable

has been developed by Arnette, Davidson, and Lewis (1931).

Two graduate classes at Columbia Teachers College were used as subjects and "Harper's Test of Social Beliefs and Attitudes" was administered to both groups. On re-test, both groups were shown the reaction to the test of "graduate educators from ten outstanding schools of education in this country" and told to give their own reactions. Their "expert opinion" key was marked to give the maximum liberal response possible to the test. Results showed that the two groups were equal on their liberal and conservative responses on pretest. Both groups showed highly significant net percentage changes to liberal attitudes on the posttest which seemingly resulted from the prestige variable. Feather and Armstrong (1967) found similar results in a later study.

Kerrick and McMillan (1961) studied the effect communications material had on attitude change when it was presented to subjects as being designed to change attitudes rather than provide information. College journalism students were given a pretest of attitudes concerning various issues. The subjects were then read four fictitious newspaper articles concerning the tested material. The group was divided randomly into two groups for the administration of the posttest. Instructions for Group A said that this study was designed "to find out how your attitudes were changed as a result of the news stories you read." Based on the difference data, it was concluded that informing subjects that experimental materials are expected to change their attitudes will significantly alter their response to these materials.

The determinants of attitude change are complex and highly interrelated and so any attempt at classifying research results into various categories must necessarily be arbitrary. However, in the very extensive research on interpersonal communications as a means of changing attitudes, the group situation in which such communications are presented is of great importance. The recognition of the importance of the influence of the group and the social environment generally upon the individual may be considered one of the most vital landmarks in the progress of the scientific study of human behavior. Among the most classical studies of the influence of the group situation upon the formation and change of attitudes and norms are those of Sherif (1936, 1937) using autokinetic phenomena. Subjects established for themselves a frame of reference in an unstable perceptual field. Group norms were quickly established when the experiment was attempted in a group situation and within a short time individual members of the group conformed in their judgments. Experimental subjects conformed to pre-established norms of the experimenter's confederates. Other experimenters (Bovard, 1951; Hoover, 1967; Mausner, 1954) have found similar results using different stimulus modalities.

The obvious implications for the formation and change of social attitudes are discussed by Sherif and Sherif (1956, p. 488) when they conclude: "The experiments...show in a simple way the basic psychological basis of established social norms such as stereotypes, fashion, conventions, customs, and values is the formation of common reference points or anchorages as a product of interaction among individuals.

Once such anchorages are established and internalized by the individual, they become important factors in determining or modifying his reactions to the situation that he will face later alone..."

The well-known work of Asch (1951, 1952, 1956) has given compelling evidence for the influence of the group upon the individual's attitude. His experiments were concerned with conditions under which the individuals either resist, or are induced to yield to, group pressures when the latter are perceived as being incorrect. Asch's technique was to set up a group situation in which the subjects had the task of judging rather simple, clearly structured, perceptual relations: they were to match the length of a given line with one of three unequal lines. The judgments were given orally so that each subject was aware of the judgments given by the other group members. All but one of the members of the group, the experimental subject, were confederates of the experimenter and had instructions to respond at designated times with unanimously wrong judgments. The experimental subject discovered himself in a situation of being a minority of one in the midst of a unanimous majority. The general result of a number of variations of this experimental technique was that a large percentage of individuals yielded to the pressure of the unanimous majority, even though this majority was obviously in error. The pressure of the majority opinions was apparently so great that the individual responded with judgments contrary to that which he felt to be correct.

Further evidence of conformity to the group was shown by Hardy (1957). He investigated the possibility that attitude change would be greater if the individual is faced with unanimous opposition in a

small group. Subjects were pretested to determine their attitudes toward divorce. Two months later they were assigned to discussion groups with confederates holding opposite views. The posttest questionnaires showed the absence of social support was significantly related to attitude change in the direction of conformity.

If the effect of such experimentally created groups--persons unknown to the subject previously and of no particular significance to him--upon the norms and attitude of the individual is so compelling, then groups who have very definite emotional and practical significance for him must be much more influential. Sherif, Sherif, and Nebergall (1965) have demonstrated that variations in an attitude's importance are in terms of concept of ego-involvement. Rejection, or membership, or non-membership in a social group committed to a given issue influence a person's attitude.

An investigation of the effect of reference groups upon attitude change is the "Bennington Study" (Newcomb, 1943, 1948). The entire student body of 600 girls of a small liberal arts college was studied. Bennington College had been noted for the prevailing liberal atmosphere with respect to a wide range of social attitudes. The families from which the students came were rather conservative members of upper-middle and upper class socio-economic groups. Systematic study showed a progressive change in social attitudes from conservative to liberal during their four-year stay at school. Further, the change was proportionate to the extent to which the college community, which was the membership group, became the reference group for the students. A follow-up study (Newcomb, 1950) showed that the longer the residence in this

"closely knit, integrated community," the greater was the change in the direction of liberalism and the greater was the persistence of the changed attitudes (p. 206). Gruen (1963) replicated the results in a later work.

These findings have practical implications and have been confirmed by subsequent investigations. Siegel and Siegel (1957) studied attitude changes among women university students which occurred over time when reference groups and membership groups were identical and when they were disparate. When divergent membership groups with disparate attitude norms were imposed on the basis of random event, attitude change in subjects was a function of the extent to which subjects came to take the imposed, though initially non-preferred, membership group as their reference group.

Schools and university groups are not the only reference groups that have been shown to change attitudes (Fedrich, 1965; Gael, 1966). Brophy (1946) found large differences in attitudes toward Negroes among white seamen belonging to three different trade unions who differed with respect to their anti-discrimination policies. Gundlach (1950) investigated the attitudes of white female factory workers who belonged to a "left wing" trade union with a militant anti-discrimination policy and found them to have a very low degree of prejudice toward Negroes. The factory workers investigated were also significantly less prejudiced than white housewives in a non-segregated New York housing project (Deutsch and Collings, 1951). In another investigation, Watson (1950) studied residents who reported that there had been a marked change in their attitudes toward Negroes and Jews. It was found by intensive

interviewing that more than half the group reported that the change had been preceded by their entry into some new institutionalized group whose standards were different from previous ones.

Research on attempts to induce attitudes which are contrary to group norms has also been done. Kelley and Volkart (1952) showed that attempts to change group-anchored attitudes usually meet with resistance, the amount of resistance usually depending upon the degree to which the group in which the attitudes are anchored is considered by the individual to be the reference group. Kelley (1955) also demonstrated more fully the positive relationship between "salience of membership" and resistance to change of group-anchored attitudes. Furuya (1958) confirmed these results in a different cultural setting.

Another area of group-oriented research on attitude change has been associated with the area of group decision making (Lewin, 1953, 1958). The objective of the studies was to change food habits of families to include in their diets items usually not found desirable by them. A "lecture method" was compared to a "discussion method." In the lectures, attractive ways of preparing these cuts of meat and recipes were distributed. In the discussion group, information was also given but the groups were then stimulated to discuss the issues and arrive at a group decision. Later investigation showed that only 3 percent of the subjects exposed to the lectures had been influenced to change their diets but 32 percent of the individuals in the discussion groups had done so. Spector (1958) studied a similar phenomena when he tried to effect changes in attitudes by having students participate in a seminar dealing with human relations management. The seminar

appeared to have affected the students so that there was a significant measurable attitudinal change. Newcomb, Turner, and Converse (1965) found revision of information in such a setting can change attitudes. Other investigations (Levine & Butler, 1953; Chaffee, 1967) have confirmed these results, showing the compelling influence of "group decision" on attitudes and behavior of the individual.

The results of such studies as these would indicate that there is evidence that an individual's attitudes do not form and persist in a facuum but are dependent to a large degree upon the attitudes and norms of the groups which form his frame of reference.

Certainly education is one of the most promising areas in which social attitudes may be changed with a view to improving intergroup relations. Hardy, Kitner, Probarsky, and Chein (1964, p. 1047), in reviewing studies of the effects of specific educational measures, conclude that "reports of significant favorable changes in attitude outnumber the reports of insignificant changes or no changes by about two to one."

With respect to the general effect of formal education, most reviews (e.g., Williams, 1947; Rose, 1948) have concluded that negative intergroup attitudes decrease with formal education. Samuelson's (1945) extensive investigation supported this conclusion as did Sartain's study (1966). In a later study, Plant (1956) investigated attitude changes associated with junior college experiences and found conclusive evidence that those who had completed the two years had changed significantly in the direction of less ethnocentric attitudes as compared with control subjects who had not had the college experience during

this time. A more recent view by Williams (1958) has reported a greater influence of education in improving intergroup attitudes to the extent that the broader norms of the society are congruent with such attempts.

Tumin, Barton, and Burrus (1958) in summarizing the effects of education on prejudice and discrimination have concluded that through education result far-reaching and deep changes in social attitudes generally in a direction more likely to be conducive toward constructive intergroup relations.

In addition to the school as a focus of attention for changing attitudes detrimental to healthy intergroup relations, a variety of action programs outside the school have been conducted in an effort to improve relations between various racial and religious groups.

In general it would appear that contacts between members of various groups are more likely to lead to attitude change in a positive direction when (a) the contacts are on a basis of equal status; (b) co-operative interaction or subordinate goals are involved; and (c) the contact is of significant duration. Grossman (1966) discovered contact with Negroes produced positive attitude changes in a racially changing neighborhood. Further supportive studies include Nyman & Sheatsley, 1964; Mezel, 1966; Cunningham, 1965; Brown, 1966. Allport and Kramer (1946) found that contact on an equal status basis between members of various racial and religious groups was likely to lead to positive change in attitude. When contact was on an unequal status basis, either no change or negative change was evidenced. Mackenzie (1948), in addition to Lorimore and Dunn (1968), likewise found that

equal status between Negro and white student leads to positive attitude change.

Sherif, Harvey, White, Hood, and Sherif (1954) have demonstrated that contact alone was not sufficient to improve attitudes between two experimentally created groups. Only when super-ordinate goals were involved, was there positive change in attitude and a breakdown in negative out-group stereotypes. Starr, Williams, and Stouffer (1958) showed in a study of integration in the Service that of the white enlisted men in companies to which Negro platoons had been assigned, 64 percent thought that this was a good general policy for the army to follow, whereas in divisions containing no Negro combat platoons, only 18 percent of the men thought that Negro platoons would be a good idea. Brophy's (1956) investigation of the effects of white and Negro merchant seamen working together demonstrated that among white seamen who had never shipped with Negroes, the percentage on non-prejudiced attitudes increased to 46 percent. For those who had shipped twice to 62 percent and of those who had shipped five or more times with Negro seamen, 82 percent were found to be relatively unprejudiced. Harding and Hogrefe (1952) found that white department store employees changed their attitudes toward Negroes, at least in the occupational sphere, after the stores had begun to employ Negro co-workers.

Despite friction that has occurred in certain circumstances as a result of housing integration, Deutsch and Collins (1951) have shown that living together in close proximity has a positive effect upon attitudes. The actual contact situation itself appeared to be largely

responsible for the attitude change. Other researchers (e.g., Wilner, Walkley & Cook, 1952; Sussman, 1957; Irish, 1952; Jahoda & Warren, 1966) have confirmed these findings that the contact of the type which is brought about by living together in integrated projects definitely tends to bring about positive changes in intergroup attitudes. Prothro (1954) found attitudes toward natural groups changed as a result of personal contacts with members of these groups, further confirming the findings.

One's attitudes toward a specific object or condition in a specific situation seem to be a function of the way one conceives that object from the standpoint of its effect on one's most cherished values. Rokeach (1968) has found that people tend to value a given belief or system of beliefs in proportion to its degree of agreement or congruence with our own belief system. They tend to value people in proportion to the degree to which they exhibit beliefs or systems of beliefs which are similar to one's own. Since value patterns are resilient to change, most changes produced in attitudes appear to be brought about by making changes in the concept of the object toward which the attitude is expressed (Woodruff & Vestor, 1948; Krech, Crutchfield & Ballachey, 1962; Sereno, 1969).

The role of education and educational experiences upon the producing of changes in attitudes and behavior have been demonstrated by the research done in the area. Although research in the area of intergroup relations is approximately half a century old, practical efforts to apply educational principles to improve intergroup relations have been made in increasing number and intensity in the past three

decades. The bulk of scientific research directed at the question of "attitude change" has developed only within the past twenty years. A critical review of the experimental and research in this area demonstrates that, with a few notable exceptions, there is little cooperation between experimental research and action programs. Especially in light of the rapid progress in experimental research and attendant theory in this area in very recent years, such cooperation becomes especially important. Such cooperation is mutually advantageous, since not only will the application of recent knowledge make practical efforts more effective, but at the same time, our knowledge of human behavior is likely to be enriched by tackling such problems. On the basis of current research trends it could be predicted that research in the future will be characterized by integration of the problems associated with attitude change into the broader framework of theories of human behavior.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Method of Research

This study is an experimental research approach focused on determining the effect of an independent variable--a short-term vocational guidance workshop--on the attitudes of the participants (dependent variable) as measured by three attitude scales. The design is the pretest-posttest-control-group design which provides for formal comparison of two observations of the experimental group with two observations on the control group. This experimental design seeks to control the main effects of history, maturation, testing, and selection. It is assumed that if there are significant differences between the two observations for the experimental group, and there are no similar differences between the two observations for the control group, then the independent variable, the workshop, was the cause. If the differences between the two observations for the experimental group are due to intervening historical events, then they should also show up in the results for the control group. If maturation or testing contributed to a difference between the two observations, then this should also appear in the results of the control group.

Thus, this design was chosen because it appears to potentially present the most solid evidence obtainable as to the validity of a new program or plan.

Overview of the Study

This experiment was conducted in Hartford, Connecticut.

The total time of the study extended from February 23, 1969, until May 3, 1969. This included a 7-day workshop from February 23 until March 1, with follow-up sessions on March 15 and May 3.

The sample serving as the source of data for this experiment consisted of 88 (44 experimental and 44 control) volunteer elementary teachers and counselors from Greater Hartford. The experimental group was chosen randomly from 205 applicants for a Plans for Progress Vocational Guidance Institute--Project: Inspire. The control group consisted of applicants who were matched on the basis of four variables to the experimental group.

Two weeks prior to the workshop, 205 subjects were administered the Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism, the Berger Scale for Acceptance of Others, the Volsky Scales, and the 16-PF. Testing was done before the initial workshop session to reduce association of the scales with the workshop as well as to prevent the participants from being subjected to a testing situation immediately at the start of the experimental treatments.

By pretesting with these scales, a basal attitude rating on each of four concepts for each potential participant was obtained. This allowed a comparison of change of rating to be made of these pretest attitude ratings with posttest attitude ratings obtained a week after the final session.

All testing subjects were told that their help was being asked in developing norms for scales to be used in a research project.

Experimenters

Since it is known that an experimenter can influence his subjects to give the response he wants (Good, 1966), the problem of coping with unconscious influence had to be considered. The author knew the nature and purpose of the experiment and felt that since this might bias the results, the information about the purpose of testing should not be communicated to assistants. The test administrators were two faculty members in the Department of Elementary Education at the University of Hartford. They were also told that the subjects were taking the tests to help develop norms for scales to be used in a research project. They did not know the purpose of testing in relation to the vocational guidance workshop. The group leaders, speakers, and resource people involved in the workshop did not know of incidence of test administration. Since all agents appeared to be disinterested parties to the testing procedures, it seems safe to conclude that the experimenter did not bias the results.

Population and Sample

Because of the limitations of money and space, it was decided that the number of participants in the project would be set at 44. A notice describing the workshop was sent to all elementary schools in Greater Hartford. The population was limited to teachers and counselors from kindergarten to the sixth grade. Potential enrollees were asked to send a letter of their interest to the project director. Two hundred five applications were received and 44 members of the experimental group

were selected based on a table of random numbers. Thus, every applicant who showed desire to take part in the workshop had an equal probability of being selected. There was no attrition as all chosen applicants for the program enrolled and completed the workshop. The control group was also selected from the list of applicants and matched to the experimental group on the basis of age, sex, experience, and composite "Leadership" score on the 16-PF.

Instrumentation

Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism, Form E, (Appendix I).

The Dogmatism Scale consists of 40 statements which measure individual differences in openness and closedness of belief systems. The scale is scored by the method of summated ratings--the higher the score, the greater the degree of closed-mindedness. The scale is a Likert-type scale, on which the subjects respond to each item by means of a 6-element key ranging from "I agree a little" to "I disagree very much." Individual scores might range from 40-280, a high score representing extreme close-mindedness and a low score indicating an open mind. High scores are considered to represent persons dogmatic and unreceptive to new ideas; low scores are considered flexible, adaptive, and receptive to new ideas. Rokeach (1960) has spoken of open-mindedness as the ability to receive and process information and to respond both to one's inner self-actualizing forces and to the structural requirements of the situation.

The dogmatic individual is described by Rokeach's definition of the concept of dogmatism (1956, p. 3): "A relatively closed cognitive organization of beliefs and disbeliefs about reality organized around

a central set of beliefs about absolute authority which, in turn, provide a framework for patterns of intolerance and qualified tolerance toward others."

A number of studies have been done in education using the Rokeach as the instrument of measurement. To mention only a few, Whitely (1967) has found open-mindedness and cognitive flexibility to be positively correlated with success in counseling; Allen (1967) demonstrated that scores could be applied to the problem of predicting counselor effectiveness; Milliken and Patterson (1967) found counselors rated as effective by their supervisors had lower rankings on the Dogmatism Scale than those rated ineffective; and, Soderbergh (1964) found dogmatism to be a detrimental trait in teachers.

Berger Scale (Appendix II). Twenty-eight items measuring "acceptance of others" were scored on the Berger Scale (as recommended by the author in a telephone conversation). The entire scale consists of 63 items which measure self-acceptance and acceptance of others. The scale is scored by the method of summated ratings--the higher the score the lesser degree of acceptance of others. The scale is a Likert-type scale on which the subjects respond to each item by means of a 5-element key ranging from "Not at all true of myself" to "True of myself." A high score represents a low degree of acceptance of others and a low score represents a greater acceptance of others. Berger (1952, p. 779) describes a person who is accepting of others as one who:

1. Does not reject, hate, or pass judgments against other persons when their behavior or standards seem to him to be contradictory to his own.

2. Does not attempt to dominate others.
3. Does not attempt to assume responsibility for others.
4. Does not deny the worth of others or their equality as persons with him. This does not imply equality in regard to specific achievements. He feels neither above nor below the people he meets.
5. Shows a desire to serve others.
6. Takes an active interest in others and shows a desire to create mutually satisfactory relations with them.
7. In attempting to advance his own welfare, he is careful not to infringe on the rights of others.

Omwake (1954) found a positive relation between acceptance of self and acceptance of others, and that those who are self-acceptant are acceptant of others. These findings support the earlier work of Sheerer (1949).

Volsky Scales (Appendix III). The Volsky Scale consists of Schedule A (36 questions) and Schedule B (60 questions) which measure realism and professed commitment in relation to employment of minority youth. The scale is scored by the method of summated ratings. The Likert-type scale on which the subject responds is a 7-element key ranging from "Definitely not true" to "Definitely true."

16-PF (Appendix IV). The 16-PF is an inventory which was developed to isolate the basic factors of personality by questionnaire objective test technique. Sixteen unitary, independent traits of person-

ality are measured. Certain of the factors on the 16-PF can be combined to give "complex" or second-order personality scores. The factors of enthusiasm, consistency, self-confidence, and control make up the Leadership score. A high rank means a leadership-type of personality.

Cattell and Scheirer (1961) found the test to be a good predictor of successful, stable, and democratic leaders. Reviews in Buros's Mental Measurements Yearbooks (Lorr, 1965; Adcock, 1959) rate this test as the best factor-based personality inventory available.

Experimental Treatment

The experimental treatment consisted of taking part in a 7-day, two follow-up session workshop in vocational guidance.

As stated earlier, the goals of the workshop were to increase the competence of teachers and counselors in the elementary school to deal more effectively with the area of career development of youth, especially emphasizing the needs of minority youth. Particular objectives to be accomplished were:

1. to have participants develop curricular materials and make curriculum adaptations which take into consideration the concepts of career development;
2. to have participants establish effective lines of communication between the schools, business and industry, and community organizations; and
3. to have participants learn about career development, culture of minority groups, and the present and future employment outlook in the Greater Hartford community.

Particular procedures to accomplish these objectives included speeches, discussions, small-group projects, field trips, and development of projects. The specific program for the workshop follows:

Sunday, February 23, 1969

Opening Session

"A New Hartford"

J.M.K. Davis, Chairman
Greater Hartford Chamber of
Commerce

"Social, Cultural, and
Technological Implications
for Employment"

Gerard Peterson, Assistant Secretary
Aetna Life and Casualty

Monday, February 24, 1969

"Hartford Employment in
Perspective"

Charles Lord, President
Hartford National Bank & Trust Co.
David Pinsky, Professor
University of Connecticut

Small Group Meetings

Panel Discussion

"Job Opportunities for
Minority Youth"

Richard Marshall, Administrative
Coordinator, Plans for Progress
Thomas Davoren, Director of Person-
nel Development, Connecticut General
Life Insurance Company
Allyn Martin, Hartford City Council
Robert Metcalf, Chief Steward
Colts Unit, United Auto Workers
Henry Silberman, President
Greater Hartford Labor Council
Ellis Tooker, Assistant Superintendent
Hartford Schools

Small Group Discussion Meetings

Determination of Workshop Responsi-
bilities, Large Group Discussion

Tuesday, February 25, 1969

Speakers

Arthur Johnson, Human Rights
Commission

Edward Coll, Revitalization Corps

David Holmes, Community Renewal
Team

Samuel Wilson, Urban League

(Discussion with speakers followed
each presentation)

Small Group Meetings (each parti-
cipant attended 3 meetings)

"Employment Opportunities
for Minority Workers"

Robert Cowie, Aetna Life and
Casualty

Earl Duffy, Hotel America

Angelo Giardini, Associated Construc-
tion Company

Robert Gronback, Hartford Hospital

William Knight, Connecticut Bank
and Trust Company

Murray Kupsaw, G. Fox and Company

Harold LeMay, Chandler Evans

Control Systems

"What Is Happening
In the Inner City?"

Robert Palmer, Employment, Inc.
Zoltan Feurman, United Aircraft
Training Center

Small Group Discussions

Wednesday, February 26, 1969

"Minority Youth: Who Am I?"

James Comer, Assistant Professor
of Psychiatry, Yale University

"Youth Speaks Out"

Panel Discussion by students from
Hartford High Schools and the
Hartford Street Academy

Small Group Discussions

Speaker: Mr. Paul McLemore
Greater Hartford Chamber of Commerce

"Career Development"

Robert P. Hopkins, Counseling
Psychologist

"Job Opportunities Now
and in the Future"

Richard Rita, Rita Personnel
Services International
Richard May, Youth Opportunity Center,
U. S. Employment Service

Small Group Discussions

Thursday, February 27, 1969

"Counseling the Culturally
Different"

Clemmont Vontress
Howard University

"Developmental Counseling"

Ira Goldenberg
Yale University

Small Group Discussion

Field Trip--United Aircraft
Corporation

Friday, February 28, 1969

Visitations to Major Employers
in Greater Hartford
(Each participant visited three
employers. The employer was asked
to allow visitors to talk with
personnel representatives and
employees from minority groups.)

Associated Construction Company
Connecticut Mutual Life Insurance
Company
Veeder Root Company

Royal Typewriter Company
Southern New England Telephone
Company
Hartford National Bank and
Trust Company

Hartford Electric Light Company
Connecticut General Life Insurance
Company
State of Connecticut

St. Francis Hospital
Hartford Insurance Group
Chandler Evans Company

Colt Industries
G. Fox and Company
Connecticut Bank and Trust Company

Saturday, March 1, 1969

"Employment for Minorities"

Nate Sims and Maiso Bryant,
University of Massachusetts
Sensitivity Workshop

Saturday, March 15, 1969

Workshop session devoted to individual and group projects and small group discussions

Saturday, May 3, 1969

Final workshop session devoted to sharing of ideas, discussion of workshop projects

"The Drug Problem and Implications for the Schools"

Dr. Melvin Weinswig and Dr. Donald Pett

Hypotheses

1. In order to evaluate the matching process, the following null hypotheses were tested:

A. There will be no significant difference in age between the experimental group and the control group.

B. There will be no significant difference in education between the experimental group and the control group.

C. There will be no significant difference in Leadership scores on the 16-PF between the experimental group and the control group.

2. In order to evaluate the changes in scores on the attitude scales, the following null hypotheses were tested:

A. There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism.

B. There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control group on the Berger Scale of Acceptance of Others.

C. There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control group on the Volsky Scale A.

D. There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control group on the Volsky Scale B.

3. In order to evaluate the relationship between pretest and posttest scores, the following null hypotheses were tested:

A. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the experimental group on the Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism.

B. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the control group on the Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism.

C. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the experimental group on the Berger Scale of Acceptance of Others.

D. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the control group on the Berger Scale of Acceptance of Others.

E. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the experimental group on the Volsky A.

F. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the control group on the Volsky A.

G. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the experimental group on the Volsky B.

H. There will be no significant relationship between pretest and posttest scores for the control group on the Volsky B.

4. In order to evaluate the direction of change on the attitude scales, the following hypotheses were tested:

A. The experimental group will change more in the direction of openmindedness as measured by the Rokeach than will the control group.

B. The experimental group will change more in the direction of acceptance of others as measured by the Berger than will the control group.

C. The experimental group will change more in the direction of realism as measured by the Volsky A than will the control group.

D. The experimental group will change more in the direction of commitment as measured by the Volsky B than will the control group.

Method of Analysis

In order to test the hypothesis determining whether the mean performances of the experimental and control groups were significantly different in relation to the matching procedure--age, education, and Leadership scores on the 16-PF--the method of analysis employed was the t-ratio. To find whether there was significant difference between the experimental group and the control group scores on the Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism, Berger Scale of Acceptance of Others, and Volsky A (realism) and Volsky B (professed commitment to vocational guidance of minority youth), the mean differences between group changes were compared by means of the t-test. Since the purpose of the workshop was to have participants become more openminded, more accepting of others, more realistic and more committed to the guidance of minority youth, a one-tail test of significance was made in each case.

The Pearson product moment correlation was used in order to measure the relationship between pretest and posttest scores for each of the scales for both the experimental and control groups.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF DATA

The findings of this investigation will be presented in four sections. The order of presentation will follow that of the presentation of the hypotheses. The first data to be presented concern the matching procedures. Second, the differences in changes in pretest and posttest scores for the experimental and control groups. The third section will deal with the relationship between pretest and posttest scores. The fourth section is concerned with the direction of change.

Section A: Matching Procedures

Hypothesis I is concerned with the matching process. The importance of matching on as many extraneous variables as might affect the dependent variable is important according to Scott and Wertheimer (1962; p. 85) because "there is even greater assurance that any post-experimental differences can be attributed to the independent variable that was directly manipulated." It has been assumed that the experimental and control groups were matched on the basis of sex, age, education, and Leadership scores on the 16-PF. Since both groups had 28 males and 16 females, they were matched on the sex variable. The other three variables were examined by means of the t-ratio.

Hypothesis I,A, states: There will be no significant differences in age between the experimental group and the control group.

Table 1--t-test on Variable of Age

Group	Mean	Number	Standard Deviation	t-test
Experimental Group	34.3	44	9.6	0.28
Control Group	33.68	44	8.4	
p > .05 df 86				

Since mean differences between the experimental and control groups on the criterion of age were not significant, the null hypothesis is accepted. It would appear that the experimental and control groups were matched on the age variable as seen in Table 1.

Hypothesis I,B, states: There will be no significant differences in education between the experimental group and the control group.

Table 2--t-test on Variable of Education

Group	Mean	Number	Standard Deviation	t-test
Experimental Group	17.07	44	.876	-0.35
Control Group	17.25	44	.810	
p > .05 df 86				

Since mean differences between the experimental and control group on the criterion of education were not significant, the null hypothesis was not rejected. It would appear that experimental and control groups were matched on the variable of education as seen in Table 2.

Hypothesis I,C, states: There will be no significant difference in Leadership scores on the 16-PF between the experimental group and the control group.

Table 3--t-test on Variable of Leadership Scores on 16-PF

Group	Mean	Number	Standard Deviation	t-test
Experimental Group	26.3	44	3.94	
				-0.09
Control Group	26.41	44	3.95	
p > .05		df 86		

Since mean differences between the experimental and control groups on the criterion of Leadership scores on the 16-PF were not significant, the null hypothesis was accepted. It would appear that the experimental and control groups were matched on the Leadership variable as seen in Table 3.

As a result of analysis of the data related to Hypothesis I, A, B, and C, by the t-ratio (Tables 1, 2, and 3), the null hypotheses were not rejected in any of the cases, i.e., the groups did not significantly differ on the variables of age, education, or Leadership scores. Therefore, it can be presumed that these were matched groups on these variables.

Section B: Changes in Scores

Hypothesis II is concerned with the changes in scores on the attitude scales.

Table 4--t-tests between Experimental and Control Groups on Attitude Scales

Attitude Scale	Mean Difference Change	Standard Error of Mean Difference	t-test
Rokeach	-12	1.975	-6.37**
Berger	-5	1.931	-2.74**
Volsky A	-21	3.115	-6.90**
Volsky B	-18	3.368	5.63**
p < .01		df = 43	

**
Significant at .01

As seen in Table 4, for all scales the t-ratio was significant at the .01 level leading to a rejection of the null hypotheses II A, B, C, and D in relation to changes in scores on attitude scales indicating that the experimental group showed a greater degree of change than did the control group. Hypothesis II A stated: There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the Rokeach Scale of Dogmatism. Hypothesis II B stated: There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the Berger Scale of Acceptance of Others. Hypothesis II C stated: There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the Volsky A (realism). Hypothesis II D stated: There will be no significant difference between the experimental and control groups on the Volsky B (commitment).

Section C: Relationship Between Pretest and Posttest Scores

Hypothesis III deals with the relationship between pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and control groups. The Pearson product moment correlations were computed to establish the relationship between the pretest and posttest scores on the four attitude measures. The Pearson product moment correlation represents the extent to which the same individual occupies the same relative position on the pretest and posttest scores.

Table 5--Correlation Tables for Scores on
Attitude Scales for Pretest and Posttest Scores

	Rokeach	Berger	Volsky A	Volsky B
Experimental Group	.863**	.925**	.582**	.454**
Control Group	.911**	.280	.80**	.928**
p < .01		df 42		

**Significant at .01

The null hypotheses stated that there would be no relationship between the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental and control groups on the Rokeach, Berger, Volsky A, and Volsky B. Using t-test tables, it was found that all but one were significant at the .01 level as seen in Table 5. However, there was no significant relationship between the pretest and posttest scores for the control group on the Berger. Thus the null hypothesis was accepted for this measure.

Section D: Direction of Change in Attitude Scales

Hypothesis IV deals with the direction in the changes of the experimental and control groups. The following hypotheses were tested:

- A. The experimental group will change more in the direction of open-mindedness as measured by the Rokeach than will the control group.
- B. The experimental group will change more in the direction of acceptance of others as measured by the Berger than will the control group.
- C. The experimental group will change more in the direction of realism as measured by the Volsky A than will the control group.
- D. The experimental group will change more in the direction of commitment as measured by the Volsky B than will the control group.

As seen in Table IV, after the workshop experience the experimental group did change more than the control group in all these areas as hypothesized.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

This chapter will be divided into three sections.

Section A will be concerned with a discussion of the analysis of the data. In Section B will be presented the summary and conclusions. Section C will deal with recommendations for further research.

Section A: Discussion

The results of this investigation supported the general hypotheses that the participants in the workshop experience would have greater changes in attitudes in the areas of openmindedness, acceptance of others, and realism and commitment to vocational guidance of minority group youth than would a matched group of educators who did not take part in the workshop. Not only did the workshop participants' scores change to a more significant degree than non-participants but they changed in the direction of becoming more openminded, more acceptant of others, and more realistic and committed. On each of the scales--Rokeach, Berger, Volsky A, and Volsky B--those participating in Project: Inspire had lower scores on the posttest than on the pretest which indicates a greater change in a positive direction as compared with the control group (Table 4).

Since these groups were not significantly different on the variables of sex, age, education, and Leadership scores on the 16-PF

(Tables 1, 2, and 3), they appeared to be matched groups. Scott and Wertheimer (1962) have indicated that the more closely the experimental and control groups are matched, the more likely the results can be contributed to the independent variable. Thus it does not appear that sex, age, education, or leadership traits (as measured by the 16-PF) were influencing factors in relation to either the change in attitude scores or in the direction of the change.

The data in this study appear to bear out what had been demonstrated by Hardy, Kitner, Probarsky, and Chein (1964). They showed that educational programs do affect significant favorable changes in attitude as measured by tests. Tumin, Barton, Burrus (1958) concluded that in regard to prejudice and discrimination, deep changes in a positive direction can result from educational programs. Apparently the present study's results were consistent with this conclusion as the data from this investigation show a greater degree of measured acceptance of others after workshop experience than before the experience for the experimental group.

Previous studies have shown that contacts between members of various groups are likely to lead to attitude change in a positive direction if contact was for a long enough duration (Grossman, 1966; Mezel, 1966). While "long enough duration" has not been satisfactorily defined, there were changes in attitude scores in a positive direction in this workshop whose time span was $2\frac{1}{2}$ months.

Except for the control group's scores on the Berger, there was a significant correlation between pretest and posttest scores for both experimental and control groups on all attitude scales (Table 5).

This indicates that the individuals maintained the same relative position on the pretest and posttest.

Both the experimental and control groups had correlations of above .86 on the Rokeach indicating that there was a high degree of stability in the individual's position on this scale. While the correlations on the experimental group for the Berger Scale of Acceptance of Others was high, the correlation was insignificant for the control group. The control group's positions on the Volsky A and B were more stable than were those of the experimental group on these measures.

Thus the analysis of data shows that the experimental groups were matched. There were greater significant changes in a positive direction on the Rokeach, Berger, Volsky A, and Volsky B for the experimental group than for the control group. Because of the matching process it appears that sex, age, education, and leadership traits did not cause this change in scores. But for one exception, there were significant relationships between pretest and posttest scores for experimental and control groups on the attitude scales.

Section B: Summary and Conclusions

The objective of the project was to design a short-term vocational guidance workshop which would increase the competence of teachers and counselors in the elementary school to deal more effectively with the area of career development and to be particularly concerned with career development of minority youth. It was hoped that the educators would make curricular changes which would take into consideration the

vital areas of career development and that they would build effective lines of communication between the schools and business and industry. If the workshop were successful, then the participants would be better acquainted with present and future employment opportunities so that they could help to raise and broaden the occupational aspirational levels of their students and better guide children vocationally.

The purpose of the investigation was to measure whether attitudes of teachers and counselors could be changed by participation in a short-term vocational guidance workshop. An evaluation was made of whether educators changed measured attitudes in regard to increasing their commitment toward working with minority group children in the area of career development, were more openminded and flexible in their outlook, were more accepting of others, and were more likely to take positive action in their schools when presented with information and experiences involving the nature of culture, job opportunities for the disadvantaged, vocational choice and development, and guidance techniques in the classroom. Pretest and posttest scores of the experimental group who took part in the workshop were compared with scores of a similar group of teachers and counselors who had not taken part in the workshop. An analysis of the data shows that the experimental group changed significantly in a positive direction. It would appear that the workshop experience did accomplish the task of influencing the participants' attitudes. Further evidence of accomplishments of the project's objectives can be seen in Appendix VII. Each participant was asked to submit, anonymously, an evaluation of the workshop. These reports indicate that the participants found Project: Inspire to be a worthwhile program for them. Some members of the group show, by their comments, a definite determination to begin to initiate new programs in their own classrooms.

Most members of the workshop have already begun to implement their learnings. Three groups of workshop participants have developed curricular guides for vocational guidance in the elementary schools of Hartford. Six participants have established a formal working agreement with such establishments as Hartford National Bank, Royal Typewriter Company, Connecticut General Life Insurance Company, and G. Fox and Company. Five participants have developed a similar workshop program in New Britain, Connecticut. While no direct evidence of the effects on children has been established, based on research of teacher and counselor influence (Krumboltz, 1967; DeFleur, 1963; and Krumboltz and Varenhorst, 1965), there should be evidence of this when teachers and counselors make changes in their approaches to career development.

As previously noted, there is much evidence in the research that elementary school children desire and can use relevant occupational information (Gribbons, 1964; Lifton, 1959; Parker, 1963). Minority group youth appear to have particular need for the schools' providing this information since their vocational aspiration level is low (Ginzberg, 1951), their educational aspirational level is low (Herriott, 1961), they have less knowledge about occupational status of jobs (Nelson, 1963) and less well formulated career plans (Ausbel, 1963). By building lines of communication between the schools and business and by having the teachers and counselors talk to minority group employees on their fieldtrip visits, there is greater likelihood that the workshop participants could provide occupational role models for the students to compensate for the lack of significant vocational identification figures as found to be necessary by Kvaraceus (1965), Uzzell (1961), and Henderson (1966).

Several general conclusions can be stated as a result of this project:

1. A short-term vocational guidance workshop can be designed which will change certain attitudes of participants in a positive direction.
2. Teachers and counselors in the elementary schools can initiate curricular changes dealing with the area of career development.
3. Lines of communication can be built between business and the schools in order to develop cooperative programs.

Section C: Implications for Further Research

As shown by past research and the results of this study, measured attitudes can be changed by educational programs, at least for a limited period of time. The fade-out effect of the workshop was not measured, however, and further research should be done on the lasting value of such a program.

The attitudes measured in this study were limited by the three instruments chosen. In order to learn more about the value of an educational program of this type it might be valuable to use different attitude scales in another investigation.

To better understand the influence of the workshop participants on the children in their classrooms, it would be interesting to do a pretest and posttest study on these children. If the focus of change

is to eventually affect the classroom, a direct measure of these objectives must be accomplished.

While change in educators' attitudes were evaluated in the study, no measure was made of the businessmen involved. A broader study might be envisioned in which there would be an attempt to change the attitudes of a wider range of those involved in the workshop.

Workshops and in-service programs with a focus other than vocational guidance might be developed and evaluated in order to see if the effects of this particular project are generalizable to other areas. If this can be established, it would have implications for the traditional teacher-education and counselor-education programs as they exist today.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Adcock, C. J. Review of 16-PF Scale. In O. K. Buros (Ed.), Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1959.
- Allen, T. W. The effectiveness of counselor trainees as a function of psychological openness. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1967, 14, 35-39.
- Allport, G. W. The Nature of Personality. Boston: Addison Wesley Press, 1952.
- Allport, G. W., Kramer, D. Some roots of prejudice. Journal of Psychology, 1946, 22, 9-39.
- Arendt, H. The Human Condition. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958.
- Arneth, C. E., Davidson, H. H., & Lewis, H. N. Prestige as a factor in attitude change. Sociology and Social Research, 1931, 16, 49-55.
- Asbury, E. Vocational development of rural disadvantaged eighth-grade boys. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1968, 17, 109-113.
- Asch, S. E. Social Psychology. New York: Prentice Hall, 1952.
- Asch, S. E. Studies of independence and conformity. Psychological Monographs, 1956 (whole no. 416), 70.
- Ausubel, D. P. Teaching strategy for culturally deprived pupils: cognitive and motivational considerations. School Review, 1963, 71, 454-463.
- Benedict, R. Patterns of Culture. New York: Mentor Books, 1960.
- Berger, E. M. The relation between expressed acceptance of self and expressed acceptance of others. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1952, 47, 778-782.
- Bernstein, B. Language and social class. British Journal of Sociology, 1960, 11, 271-276.
- Bloom, B. Stability and Change in Human Characteristics. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1964.
- Borow, H. Man in a World at Work. Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964.
- Boulding, K. E. The Image. Ann Arbor, Michigan: University of Michigan Press, 1961.

- Bovard, E. W. Group structure and perception. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1951, 216, 398-405.
- Brod, P. The counselor in the middle school. The School Counselor, 1967, 6, 348-350.
- Brophy, I. N. The luxury of anti-Negro prejudice. Public Opinion Quarterly, 1946, 10, 456-466.
- Brunhan, R. J. Perceived parental attitudes and parental identification in relation to field of vocational choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1965, 12, 39-47.
- Buros, O. K. The Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey, Gryphon Press, 1965.
- Buros, O. K. The Fifth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey, Gryphon Press, 1959.
- Calvin, A. D. & Holtzman, W. H. Adjustment and the discrepancy between self-concept and inferred-self. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1953, 17, 39-44.
- Cattell, R. B. & Scheirer, I. H. The Meaning and Measurement of Neuroticism and Anxiety, New York, Ronald Press, 1961.
- Chaffee, S. H. Salience and pertinence as sources of value change. Journal of Communication, 1967, 17, 25-38.
- Chansky, N. M. Race, aptitude, and vocational interests. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1965, 43, 780-784.
- Chein, I. Notes on a framework for the measurement of discrimination and prejudice. In M. Jahoda, M. Deutsch, & F. Cook (Eds.), Research Methods in Social Relations. New York: Dryden Press, 1951.
- Clark, E. T. Influence of sex and social class on occupational preference and perception. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 45, 440-444.
- Clarke, R., Gelatt, H. B., & Levine, L. A decision-making paradigm for local guidance research. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1965, 44, 40-51.
- Coopersmith, S. A method for determining types of self-esteem. Journal of Educational Psychology, 1959, 59, 87-94.
- Cunningham, G. E. Derogatory images of the Negro and Negro history. Negro History Bulletin, 1965, 28, 126-127.

- DeFleur, M. L. Children's knowledge of occupational roles and prestige. Psychological Reports, 1963, 13, 760.
- Deutsch, M. & Collins, M. E. Interracial Housing: A Psychological Evaluation of a Social Experiment. Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1951.
- Dilley, J. S. Decision-making: a dilemma and a purpose for counseling. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 45, 547-551.
- Drews, E. M. Counseling for self-actualization in gifted girls and young women. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1965, 12, 167-175.
- Duncan, O. & Hodge, R. Educational and occupational mobility: a regression analysis. American Journal of Sociology, 1963, 68, 629-644.
- Edwards, T. B. & Webster, S. W. Correlates and effects of ethnic group identification research relating to children. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Welfare Administration, Children's Bureau, Bulletin, No. 17, 1963, 85.
- Erikson, E. H. Childhood and Society. New York: W. W. Norton, Inc. 1950.
- Feather, N. T. & Armstrong, D. J. Effects of variations in source attitude, receiver attitude, and communication stand on reactions to source and content of communication. Journal of Personality, 1967, 35, 435-455.
- Fendrick, J. M. A Study of White's Attitudes, Commitment, and Overt Behavior Toward Members of a Minority Group, Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University, 1965.
- Festinger, L. A Theory of Cognitive Dissonance. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson Co., 1957.
- Festinger, L. and Carlsmith, J. H. Cognitive consequences of forced compliance. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1959, 58, 203-210.
- Fink, M. B. Self-concept as it relates to academic underachievement. California Journal of Educational Research, 1962, 13, 57-62.
- Foote, N. Identification on the basis for a theory of motivation. American Sociological Review, 1951, 16, 14-21.
- Francis, J. F. An Evaluation of Selected, Grades, Versus Non-Graded Occupational Literature Units as Sources of Vocational Information and Reading Skill Development Materials. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Boston University, 1966.

- Furuga, T. An experimental study of resistance to the change of attitudes. Japanese Journal of Psychology, 1958, 28, 260-268.
- Gael, S. Cross-Cultural Behavior as a Function of Attitude. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, The Ohio State University, 1966.
- Gay, C. J. Academic Achievement and Intelligence Among Negro Eighth Grade Students as a Function of the Self-Concept. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, North Texas State University, 1966.
- Ginzberg, E. S., Ginsburg, W., Axelrad, S., & Herma, J. L. Occupational Choice. New York: Columbia University Press, 1951.
- Good, C. V. The Essentials of Educational Research. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1966.
- Goodson, Sylvia. Occupational information materials in selected elementary and middle schools. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1962, 17, 128-131.
- Gordon, I. Brainwashing, perception, and the task of the teachers. Childhood Education, 1958, 35, 120-122.
- Grant, C. W. How students perceive the counselor. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1954, 32, 386-388.
- Grell, L. A. How much occupational information in the elementary school. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1961, 10, 48-55.
- Gribbons, W. D. Changes in readiness for vocational planning for eighth grade to tenth grade. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 42, 908-913.
- Grossman, J. S. Psychological Determinants of Reaction to Neighborhood Racial Change. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Western Reserve University, 1966.
- Gundlach, R. H. Effects of on-the-job experience with Negroes upon the racial attitudes of white workers in union shops. American Psychologist, 1950, 5, 300.
- Gruen, R. A study of attitude change and change in self-concept among liberal arts students. Dissertation Abstracts, 1963, 24, 1074-1075.
- Gunn, Barbara. Children's conceptions of occupational prestige. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 42, 558-563.
- Hardy, K. R. Determinants of conformity and attitude change. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1957, 53, 289-294.

- Harding, J. & Hogrefe, R. Attitude of white department store employees toward Negro co-workers. Journal of Social Issues, 1952, 8, 18-28.
- Harding, J., Kutner, B., Proshansky, H. & Chein, I. Prejudices and ethnic relations. In G. Lindzey (Ed.), Handbook of Social Psychology, Volume II. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison Wesley Publishing Company, 1954.
- Heider, F. Attitudes and cognitive organization. Journal of Psychology, 1946, 21, 107-112.
- Heider, F. The Psychology of Interpersonal Relations, New York: Wiley, 1958.
- Henderson, G. Role models for lower class Negro boys. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 46, 6-10.
- Herriott, R. Some social determinants of level of educational aspirations. Harvard Studies in Career Development. Cambridge, Massachusetts: 1961, No. 16, mimeographed.
- Hilgard, E. R. Human motives and the concept of the self. American Psychologist, 1949, 4, 374-382.
- Hill, G. E. Elementary School Guidance. Paper presented at the 12th Annual All-Ohio Guidance Conference, September, 1964.
- Hill, W. B. An Experimental Investigation of the Effect of the Study of Occupational Information on the Stability and Realism of Occupational Choice by Students in a Suburban High School. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Temple University, 1965.
- Hilton, T. L. Career decision making. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1962, 9, 291-298.
- Himes, J. Some work-related cultural deprivations of lower-class Negro youths. Journal of Marriage and the Family, 1964, 26, 447-449.
- Holland, J. L. The Psychology of Vocational Choice: A Theory of Personality Types and Model Environments. Waltham, Massachusetts: Blaisdell Publishing Co., 1966.
- Hoover, K. H. Effect of structured small groups upon attitude change. Journal of Educational Research, 1967, 9, 233-236.
- Hoppock, R. Occupational Information. New York: Harper and Row, 1963.
- Horner, J. T. Factors in Occupational and Educational Decision-Making of Rural Youth. Lincoln, Nebraska, College of Agriculture, Nebraska University, 1967.
- Hosford, R. E. Product or Process, Implication for Decision-Making. Washington, D. C.: American Psychological Association, 1967.

- Hyman, H. H. & Sheatsley, P. B. Attitudes toward desegregation. Scientific American, 1964, 211, 16-23.
- Irish, D. P. Reactions of Caucasian residents to Japanese-American neighbors. Journal of Social Issues, 1952, 8, 10-17.
- Jahoda, M. & Warren, N. Attitudes. Baltimore, Maryland: Penguin Books, 1966.
- Janis, I. L. & King, B. T. The influence of role playing on opinion change. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1954, 49, 211-218.
- Jessee, B. E. The effects of counseling and group guidance on the vocational maturity of ninth grade boys. Journal of Educational Research, 1965, 59, 68-72.
- Kaback, G. Occupational information for groups of elementary school children. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1965, 13, 163-168.
- Katz, M. A model of guidance for career decision-making. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1966, 15, 2-10.
- Kelley, H. H. Salience of membership and resistance to change of group-anchored attitudes. Human Relations, 1955, 8, 275-290.
- Kerrick, J. S. & McMillan, D. A. The effects of instructional set on the measurement of attitude through communications. Journal of Social Psychology, 1961, 47, 113-120.
- King, B. T. & Janis, I. L. Comparison of the effectiveness of improvised vs. non-improvised role playing in producing opinion change. Human Relations, 1956, 9, 177-185.
- Kinnane, J. F. & Bannon, Sr., M. Perceived parental influence and work-value orientation. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 43, 273-279.
- Kinnane, F. F. & Pable, M. W. Family background and work values orientation. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1962, 9, 320-325.
- Krasnow, B. S. Occupational information as a factor in the high school curriculum chosen by ninth grade boys. The School Counselor, 1968, 15, 275-280.
- Krech, D., Crutchfield, R. S., & Ballachey, E. L. Individual in Society. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962.
- Krumboltz, J. D. Changing the behavior of behavior changers. Counselor Education and Supervision, 1967, 6, 222-235.

- Krumboltz, J. D. & Varenhorst, B. Molders of pupil attitudes. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1965, 43, 443-446.
- Kvaraceus, W. C. & Gibson, J. Negro Self-Concept: Implications for School and Citizenship. New York: McGraw Hill, 1965.
- Lee, B. L. & King, P. Vocational choices of ninth grade girls and their parents' occupational levels. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1964, 12, 163-167.
- Leonard, G. E. & Stephens, E. Elementary school employment service of the developmental career guidance project. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1967, 16, 13-16.
- Levenstine, A. Work in Its Meaning in an Age of Affluence. Paper presented at the meeting of the National Vocational Guidance Association, Washington, D. C., August, 1966.
- Levine, J. & Butler, J. Lecture vs. group decision in changing behavior. In D. Cartwright & A. Zander (Eds.), Group Dynamics: Research and Theory. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson, 1953.
- Levy, L. H. The meaning and generality of perceived actual-ideal discrepancies. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1956, 20, 396-398.
- Lewin, K. Studies in group decision. In B. Cartwright and A. Zander (Eds.), Group Dynamics: Research and Theory. Evanston, Illinois: Row Peterson, 1953.
- Lewin, K. Group decision and social change. In E. E. Maccoby, T. M. Newcomb & E. L. Hartley (Eds.), Readings in Social Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, 1958.
- Lifton, W. M. Vocational guidance in the elementary school. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1963, 12, 89-92.
- Lifton, W. Social forces and guidance in the elementary school. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1963, 12, 89-92.
- Linton, R. The Cultural Background of Personality. New York: Appleton, Century, Crofts, 1945.
- LoCascio, R. Continuity and discontinuity in vocational development theory. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1967, 46, 32-36.
- Lorimor, E. S. & Dunn, S. W. Reference groups, congruity, theory, and cross-cultural persuasion. Journal of Communication, 1968, 18, 354-368.
- Lorr, Maurice. Review of 16-PF Scale. In O. K. Buros (Ed.), Sixth Mental Measurements Yearbook. Highland Park, New Jersey: The Gryphon Press, 1965.

- Lund, F. H. The psychology of belief. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1925, 20, 63-81.
- Lyon, R. Beyond the conventional career: some speculations. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1965, 12, 153-158.
- MacKenzie, D. K. The importance of contact in determining attitudes toward Negroes. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1948, 43, 417-441.
- Mann, E. Some behaviors and attitudes relating to vocational choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1965, 12, 404-408.
- Martin, A. M. A Multi-Media Approach to Communicating Occupational Information to Non-College Youth. Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1967.
- Maslow, A. H. Motivation and Personality. New York: Harper Bros., 1954.
- Mausner, B. The effect of prior reinforcement on the inter-action of observer pairs. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1954, 49, 65-68.
- McBroom, P. Race image improved. Science News, 1966, 90, 318.
- McGuire, W. J. Cognitive consistency and attitude change. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1960, 60, 345-353.
- Miller, I. W. & Haller, A. O. A measure of level of occupational aspiration. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1964, 42, 448-455.
- Milliken, R. L. & Patterson, J. J. Relationship of dogmatism and prejudice to counseling effectiveness. Counselor Education and Supervision, 1967, 6, 125-129.
- Moore, B. M. & Holtzman, W. H. Tomorrow's Parents: A Study of Youth and Their Families. Austin, Texas: University of Texas Press, 1963.
- Nelson, R. Knowledge and interest concerning 16 occupations among elementary and secondary school students. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1963, 23, 741-754.
- Newcomb, T. M. Personality and Social Change. New York: Dryden Press, 1943.
- Newcomb, T. M. Attitude development as a function of reference groups in M. Sherif (ed.), An Outline of Social Psychology. New York: Harper Bros., 1948.
- Newcomb, T. M. Social Psychology. New York: Dryden Press, 1950.

- Newcomb, T. M. An approach to the study of communicative acts. Psychological Review, 1953, 60, 393-404.
- Newcomb, T. M., Turner, R. H., & Converse, P. E. Social Psychology. New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1965.
- Omwake, K. T. The relation between acceptance of self and acceptance of others by three personality inventories. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1954, 18, 443-446.
- Osgood, C. E. & Tannenbaum, P. The principle of contiguity in attitude change. Psychological Review, 1955, 58, 42-55.
- Parker, J. An Analysis of Children's Concepts of Selected Occupations. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Northwestern University, 1963.
- Patel, A. S. & Gordon, J. E. Some personal and situational determinants of yielding to influence. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1960, 61, 411-418.
- Pettigrew, T. T. A Profile of the American Negro. Princeton, New Jersey: Van Nostrand, 1964.
- Plant, W. T. Attitude Change Associated with a Two-Year College Experience. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Stanford University, 1956.
- Prothro, E. T. Cross-cultural patterns of national stereotypes. Journal of Social Psychology, 1954, 40, 53-59.
- Reisman, D., Glazer, N., Denney, R. The Lonely Crowd. New Haven, Connecticut: Yale University Press, 1950.
- Rogers, L. A. The Effect of Role-Playing on Student Attitudes Toward High School Counselors and Guidance. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1968.
- Roe, A. The Psychology of Occupations. New York: Wiley & Sons, 1956.
- Roe, A. Early determinants of vocational choice. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1957, 4, 212-217.
- Rokeach, M. Political and religious dogmatism: an alternative to the authoritarian personality. Psychological Monographs, 1956, 70.
- Rokeach, M. The Open and Closed Mind. New York: Basis Books, 1960.
- Rokeach, M. Beliefs, Attitudes, and Values. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1968.
- Rokeach, M. & Mezel, L. Race and shared belief as factors in social choice. Science, 1966, 151, 167-172.

- Rose, A. M. Studies in Reduction of Prejudices. (2nd ed.) Chicago: American Council on Race Relations, 1948.
- Rosenberg, R. Society and Adolescent Self-Image. Princeton, New Jersey: University of Princeton Press, 1965.
- Sain, L. F. Occupational Preferences and Expectations of Negro Students Attending a High School Located in a Lower Socio-Economic Area. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Wayne State University, 1965.
- Samuelson, B. The Patterning of Attitudes and Beliefs Regarding the American Negro. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Radcliffe College, 1945.
- Sarnoff, J. & Katz, D. Motivational bases of attitude change. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1954, 49, 115-117.
- Sartain, J. A. Attitudes of Parents and Children Towards Desegregation. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, Vanderbilt University, 1966.
- Scott, W. A. & Wetheimer, M. Introduction to Psychological Research. New York: Wiley and Sons, 1962.
- Sereno, K. K. Ego-Involvement: A neglected variable in speech-communication research. Quarterly Journal of Speech, 1969, 55, 69-77.
- Sewell, W. H., Halle, A. O., & Straus, M. Social status and educational and occupational aspirations. American Sociological Review, 1957, 22, 67-73.
- Sheerer, E. An analysis of the relationship between acceptance of and respect for self and acceptance of and respect for others in ten counseling cases. Journal of Consulting Psychology, 1949, 13, 169-175.
- Sherif, M. The Psychology of Norms. New York: Harper Bros., 1936.
- Sherif, M. An experimental approach to the study of attitudes. Sociometry, 1937, 1, 90-98.
- Sherif, M. Harvey, C. J., White, B. J., Hood, W. R., & Sherif, C. W. Experimental Study of Positive and Negative Inter-group Attitudes Between Experimentally Produced Groups: Robbers Cave Study. Norman, Oklahoma: University of Oklahoma, 1954.
- Sherif, M. & Sherif, C. W. An Outline of Social Psychology (Rev. Ed.). New York: Harper Bros., 1956.
- Sherif, C. W., Sherif, M., & Nebergall, R. E. Attitude and Attitude Change. Philadelphia: Saunders, 1965.
- Shirts, R. G. Career Simulation for Sixth Grade Pupils. San Diego, California: San Diego County Department of Education, 1966.

- Siegel, E. E. & Siegel, S. Reference groups, membership groups, and attitude change. Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 1957, 55, 360-364.
- Simmons, D. Children's rankings of occupational prestige. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1962, 41, 332-336.
- Simmons, D. D. Children's criteria for occupational stratification. Journal of Educational Research, 1968, 62, 71-72.
- Soderbergh, P. A. Dogmatism and the public school teacher. Journal of Teacher Education, 1964, 15, 245-251.
- Spector, A. J. Changes in human relations attitudes. Journal of Applied Psychology, 1958, 42, 154-157.
- Star, A., Williams, R. M., & Stouffer, S. A. Negro infantry platoons in white companies. In E. E. Maccoby, T. M. Newcomb, and E. L. Hartley (Eds.), Readings in Social Psychology (3rd. Ed.), New York: Holt, Rinehart, Winston, 1958.
- Steimel, R. & Suzeidelis, A. Perceived parental influence and inventoried interests. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1963, 10, 289-295.
- Stewart, M. Who goes to college. Occupational Outlook Quarterly, 1962, 6, 11-14.
- Sumner, W. G. Folkways. Boston: Ginn, 1907.
- Super, D. E. A theory of vocational development. American Psychologist, 1953, 8, 185-190.
- Super, D. E. The Psychology of Careers. New York: Harper & Row, 1957.
- Super, D. & Bachrach, P. Scientific Careers and Vocational Development Theory. New York: Teachers College Press, 1957.
- Super, D. E. The Vocational Maturity of Ninth Grade Boys. New York: Teachers College Press, 1960.
- Super, D. E. & Crites, J. O. Appraising Vocational Fitness by Means of Psychological Tests. (2nd Ed.) New York: Harper, 1962.
- Super, D. E. Career Development: Self-Concept Theory. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.
- Super, D. E. A developmental approach to vocational guidance: recent theory and results. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1964, 13, 1-10.
- Sussman, M. D. The role of neighborhood association in private housing for racial minorities. Journal of Social Issues, 1957, 13, 31-37.

- Tennyson, W. W. & Monnens, L. The world of work through elementary readers. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1963-64, 12, 85-88.
- Thayer, R. A. Occupational Interests and Socio-Economic Position of High School Boys. Unpublished doctoral dissertation, St. Louis, Washington University, 1968.
- Tiedeman, D. V. & O'Hara, R. P. Career Development: Choice and Adjustment. New York: College Entrance Examination Board, 1963.
- Tilgher, A. Work: What It Has Meant to Men Through the Ages.
- Tilgher, A. Work through the Ages. In S. Nosow & W. Form (Eds.) Man, Work, & Society. New York: Basic Books, 1962.
- Tumins, M., Barton, P., & Burrus, B. Education, prejudice and discrimination: A study in readiness for desegregation. American Sociological Review, 1958, 23, 41-49.
- Tyler, Leona E. The encounter with poverty--its effect on vocational psychology. Rehabilitation Counseling Bulletin, 1967, 11, 61-70.
- Uzzell, O. Influencers of occupational choice. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1961, 39, 666-669.
- Varenhorst, B. B. How students use values in decision-making. Paper presented at the meeting of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Washington, D.C., April, 1966.
- Watson, J. Some social and psychological situations related to change in attitudes. Human Relations, 1950, 3, 15-56.
- Weinstein, E. S. Children's conception of occupational stratification. Sociology, 1958, 40, 278-284.
- Wellington, J. A. & Olechowski, N. Attitudes toward world of work in elementary school. Vocational Guidance Quarterly, 1966, 14, 160-163.
- Whiteley, J. M. Selection and evaluation of counselor effectiveness. Journal of Counseling Psychology, 1967, 14, 226-234.
- Whitfield, E. Vocational guidance in the elementary school: integration or fragmentation. School Counselor, 1968, 16, 90-93.
- Whyte, W. H. The Organization Man. New York, Simon & Schuster, 1965.

- Williams, R. L. & Cole, S. Self concept and school adjustment. Personnel and Guidance Journal, 1968, 46, 478-481.
- Williams, R. M. The reduction of inter-group tensions: a survey of research on problems of ethnic, racial, and religious group relations. New York: Social Science Research Council, 1947, Bulletin 57.
- Williams, R. M. Racial and cultural relations. In J. B. Gittler (Ed.), Review of Sociology. New York: Wiley, 1958.
- Wilner, D. M. & Walkley, R. T., & Cook, S. W. Residential proximity and international group relations in public housing projects. Journal of Social Issues, 1952, 8, 45-49.
- Woodruff, A. D. & Di Vestor, F. J. The relationship between values, concepts, & attitudes. Educational and Psychological Measurement, 1948, 8, 645-659.
- Wylie, R. C. Children's estimates of their school work ability as a function of sex, race, and socio-economic level. Journal of Personality, 1963, 31, 203-224.

A P P E N D I C E S

APPENDIX I

Rokeach Dogmatism Scale

The following is a study of what the general public thinks and feels about a number of important social and personal questions. The best answer to each statement below is your personal opinion. We have tried to cover many different and opposing points of view; you may find yourself agreeing strongly with some of the statements, disagreeing just as strongly with others; and perhaps uncertain about others; whether you agree or disagree with any statement, you can be sure that many people feel the same as you do.

Mark each statement in the left margin according to how much you agree or disagree with it. Please mark every one.

Write +1, +2, +3, or -1, -2, -3, depending on how you feel in each case.

+1 = I AGREE A LITTLE

-1 = I DISAGREE A LITTLE

+2 = I AGREE ON THE WHOLE

-2 = I DISAGREE ON THE WHOLE

+3 = I AGREE VERY MUCH

-3 = I DISAGREE VERY MUCH

- _____ 1. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
- _____ 2. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.
- _____ 3. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
- _____ 4. It is only natural that a person would have a much better acquaintance with ideas he believes in than with ideas he opposes.
- _____ 5. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.
- _____ 6. Fundamentally, the world we live in is a pretty lonesome place.
- _____ 7. Most people just don't give a "damn" for others.
- _____ 8. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
- _____ 9. It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.

- _____ 10. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it in.
- _____ 11. Once I get wound up in a heated discussion I just can't stop.
- _____ 12. In a discussion I often find it necessary to repeat myself several times to make sure I am being understood.
- _____ 13. In a heated discussion I generally become so absorbed in what I am going to say that I forget to listen to what the others are saying.
- _____ 14. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live coward.
- _____ 15. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein, Beethoven, Shakespeare.
- _____ 16. The main thing in life is for a person to want to do something important.
- _____ 17. If given the chance I would do something of great benefit to the world.
- _____ 18. In the history of mankind there have probably been just a handful of really great thinkers.
- _____ 19. There are a number of people I have come to hate because of the things they stand for.
- _____ 20. A man who does not believe in some great cause has really not lived.
- _____ 21. It is only when a person devotes himself to an ideal or cause that life becomes meaningful.
- _____ 22. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world there is probably only one which is correct.
- _____ 23. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty "wishy-washy" sort of person.
- _____ 24. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to the betrayal of our own side.
- _____ 25. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
- _____ 26. In times like these, a person must be pretty selfish if he considers primarily his own happiness.
- _____ 27. The worst crime a person could commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.

- _____ 28. In times like these it is often necessary to be more on guard against ideas put out by people or groups in one's own camp than by those in the opposing camp.
- _____ 29. A group which tolerates too much differences of opinion among its own members cannot exist for long.
- _____ 30. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.
- _____ 31. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.
- _____ 32. A person who thinks primarily of his own happiness is beneath contempt.
- _____ 33. Most of the ideas which get printed nowadays aren't worth the paper they are printed on.
- _____ 34. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.
- _____ 35. It is often desirable to reserve judgment about what's going on until one has had a chance to hear opinions of those one respects.
- _____ 36. In the long run the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.
- _____ 37. The present is all too often full of unhappiness. It is only the future that counts.
- _____ 38. If a man is to accomplish his mission in life it is sometimes necessary to gamble "all or nothing at all."
- _____ 39. Unfortunately, a good many people with whom I have discussed important social and moral problems don't really understand what's going on.
- _____ 40. Most people just don't know what's good for them.

APPENDIX II

Berger Scale of Acceptance of Self and Others

This is a study of some of your attitudes. Of course, there is no right answer for any statement. The best answer is what you feel is true of yourself.

You are to respond to each question by marking on the answer sheet according to the following scheme:

1	2	3	4	5
Not at all true of myself	Slightly true of myself	About half way true of myself	Mostly true of myself	True of myself

Remember, the best answer is the one which applies to you. Go across the answer sheet.

1. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
2. I don't question my worth as a person, even if I think others do.
3. I can be friendly with all varieties of people--from the highest to the lowest.
4. I can become so absorbed in the work I'm doing that it doesn't bother me not to have any intimate friends.
5. I don't approve of spending time and energy in doing things for other people. I believe in looking to my family and myself more and letting others shift for themselves.
6. When people say nice things about me, I find it difficult to believe they really mean it. I think maybe they're kidding me or just aren't being sincere.
7. If there is any criticism or anyone says anything about me, I just can't take it.
8. I don't say much at social affairs because I'm afraid that people will criticize me or laugh if I say the wrong thing.
9. I realize that I'm not living very effectively but I just don't believe I've got it in me to use my energies in better ways.
10. I don't approve of doing favors for people. If you're too agreeable they'll take advantage of you.

11. I look on most of the feelings and impulses I have toward people as being quite natural and acceptable.
12. Something inside me just won't let me be satisfied with any job I've done--if it turns out well, I get a very smug feeling that this is beneath me, I shouldn't be satisfied with this, this isn't a fair test.
13. I feel different from other people. I'd like to have the feeling of security that comes from knowing I'm not too different from others.
14. I'm afraid for people that I like to find out what I'm really like, for fear they'd be disappointed in me.
15. I am frequently bothered by feeling of inferiority.
16. Because of other people, I haven't been able to achieve as much as I should have.
17. I am quite shy and self-conscious in social situations.
18. In order to get along and be liked, I tend to be what people expect me to be rather than anything else.
19. I usually ignore the feelings of others when I'm accomplishing some important end.
20. I seem to have a real inner strength in handling things. I'm on a pretty solid foundation and it makes me pretty sure of myself.
21. There's no sense in compromising. When people have values I don't like, I just don't care to have much to do with them.
22. The person you marry may not be perfect, but I believe in trying to get him or her to change along desirable lines.
23. I see no objection to stepping on other people's toes a little if it'll help me get what I want in life.
24. I feel self-conscious when I'm with people who have a superior position to mine in business or at school.
25. I try to get people to do what I want them to do, in one way or another.
26. I often tell people what they should do when they're having trouble in making a decision. —
27. I enjoy myself most when I'm alone, away from other people.
28. I think I'm neurotic or something.

29. I feel neither above nor below the people I meet.
30. Sometimes people misunderstand me when I try to keep them from making mistakes that could have an important effect on their lives.
31. Very often I don't try to be friendly with people because I think they don't like me.
32. There are very few times when I compliment people for their talents of jobs they've done.
33. I enjoy doing little favors for people even if I don't know them well.
34. I feel that I'm a person of worth, on an equal plane with others.
35. I can't avoid feeling guilty about the way I feel toward certain people in my life.
36. I prefer to be alone rather than have close friendships with any of the people around me.
37. I am not afraid of meeting new people. I feel that I'm a worthwhile person and there's no reason why they should dislike me.
38. I sort of only half-believe in myself...
39. I seldom worry about other people. I am really pretty self-centered.
40. I am very sensitive. People say things and I have a tendency to think they are criticizing me or insulting me in some way and later when I think of it, they may not have meant anything like that at all.
41. I think I have certain abilities and other people say so too but I wonder if I am not giving them an importance way beyond what they deserve.
42. I feel confident that I can do something about the problems that may arise in the future.
43. I believe that people should get credit for their accomplishments, but I very seldom come across work that deserves praise.
44. When someone asks for advice about some personal problem, I am most likely to say, "It's up to you to decide, rather than tell him what he should do."
45. I feel that for the most part one has to fight his way through life. That means that people who stand in the way will be hurt.
46. I can't help feeling superior (or inferior) to most of the people that I know.

47. I do not worry or condemn myself if other people pass judgment against me.
48. I don't hesitate to urge people to live by the same high set of values which I have for myself.
49. I can be friendly with people who do things which I consider wrong.
50. I don't feel very normal, but I want to feel normal.
51. When I am in a group I usually don't say much for fear of saying the wrong things.
52. I have a tendency to sidestep my problems.
53. If people are weak and inefficient I am inclined to take advantage of them. I believe you must be strong to achieve your goals.
54. I'm easily irritated by people who argue with me.
55. When I am dealing with younger persons, I expect them to do what I tell them.
56. I don't see much point to doing things for others unless they can do you some good later on.
57. Even when people do think well of me, I feel sort of guilty because I know I must be fooling them--that if I were really to be myself, they wouldn't think well of me.
58. I feel that I'm on the same level as other people and that helps to establish good relations with them.
59. If someone I know is having difficulty in working things out for himself, I like to tell him what to do.
60. I feel that people are apt to react differently to me than they would normally react to other people.
61. I live too much by other people's standards.
62. When I have to address a group, I get self-conscious and have difficulty in saying things well.
63. If I didn't always have such hard luck, I'd accomplish much more than I have.

APPENDIX III

Volsky Scale (Schedule A)

Each of the following statements concern poverty in urban communities. You are to read each statement and record your opinion on the scale provided below each statement. It is important that you express your personal opinion.

() definitely () probably () uncertain () possibly
 true true not true

() probably () definitely
 not true not true

1. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is primarily confined to ethnic minority groups.
2. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is confined to people who lack an achievement orientation.
3. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is mainly a matter of definition--hardly any person is really suffering in the U. S.
4. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is a way of life generally acceptable to those who live it.
5. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is confined to sub-standard slum districts.
6. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is more a problem in the East than in the West.
7. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is confined to people receiving welfare aid.
8. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is a normal condition which will never be completely eliminated.
9. In most urban communities in the United States poverty is a problem of individual cases rather than a "community problem."
10. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to lack of individual ambition to succeed.
11. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to lack of skills and education.

12. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to lack of job opportunities.
13. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to discrimination against minority group members.
14. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to lack of knowledge of other possible styles of life.
15. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to the economic structure of the community (e.g., lack of industries which employ unskilled labor).
16. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to long term family disorder and circumstances (e.g., husband has deserted the family).
17. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to lack of resources in a particular area, such as communication and transportation to hear about or get to a job.
18. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty is mainly due to poor welfare and employment laws which encourage dependency.
19. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by developing better education for deprived children in our school system.
20. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by providing vocational or specialized training for the unemployed.
21. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by denying welfare support to able-bodied breadwinners.
22. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by reducing racial prejudice among employers.
23. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by expanding the job market through new private industry in the community.
24. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by relocating people to areas of high demand for workers.
25. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by exposing youth to successful models from their own group area.
26. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by expanding the job market through governmental projects.

27. In most urban communities in the United States, poverty can best be solved by reorganizing government agency structures which should handle the problem.
28. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is community apathy--e.g., it is not a concern of community leadership.
29. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is the lack of understanding--most people do not realize the extent or nature of poverty in the community.
30. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is the lack of money to support projects designed to reduce poverty.
31. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is the lack of expert knowledge about how to change established patterns of behavior, especially for particular ethnic groups.
32. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is resistance to change by those satisfied to stay the way they are now.
33. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is the continual movement of poorly prepared rural people to cities with no job market.
34. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is the need of welfare agencies to concentrate efforts on old and disabled persons when real change could come from concentration on youth programs.
35. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is the expectation that people can succeed regardless of their present circumstances.
36. In most urban communities in the United States, the most important obstacle to the solution of the problem of poverty is obsolete or backward government agency structures.

APPENDIX IV

Volsky Scale (Schedule B)

Each of the following statements concern the general problem of employment for minority youth. You are to read each statement and record your opinion on the scale provided below each statement. It is important that you express your personal opinion.

☐ definitely ☐ probably ☐ uncertain ☐ possibly
true true not true

☐ probably ☐ definitely
not true not true

1. Given certain conditions, a person's character can change or be changed at any age.
2. A person's character is most strongly influenced by early association, but as his environment changes, he will, to some varying degree, change with it.
3. Hope, opportunity, trust, and understanding are some of the basic factors which can induce character change.
4. Early training in the first ten years of life pretty well establishes what a person will be like the rest of his life.
5. If a person needs a lot of supervision when he begins a job, he will not become a good worker.
6. If a person observes that his parents have poor work habits, he will probably have poor work habits.
7. It will be virtually impossible to substantially reduce minority unemployment in this country without large-scale social change.
8. Existing bureaucratic organizations in welfare, employment, and education must be given up in favor of some entirely new structure capable of handling the problem.
9. Minority unemployment will never be eliminated entirely as long as we have individual differences.
10. More jobs can be created through the constructive use of economic and social activity.

11. Most people who are unemployed would like to have a job.
12. The human being is sufficiently flexible that he can be taught a continuing series of new kinds of jobs as technological change makes his old knowledge and skills obsolete.
13. The influence of a person's natural drive and ambition is more important in explaining his chronic unemployment than the influence of his immediate social situation.
14. If a person has enough motivation, he will make opportunities for himself in spite of other obstacles.
15. Existing organizations have not substantially reduced minority unemployment.
16. In order for democracy to be successful, you must have social awareness in the middle class.
17. Human nature is such that there will always be unemployment.
18. There is a place for increasing numbers of minority youth in the labor market.
19. There are many opportunities now present for minority youth wishing to enter the labor force.
20. The employment future looks bright for minority youth.
21. A good counselor completes his work during his regular working hours.
22. In working with minority youth, a counselor must remain within the bounds of the traditional counseling relationship.
23. The counselor or teacher should never loan money to his clients.
24. A good counselor or teacher will intercede between the minority group student and authority figures.
25. A good counselor or teacher never lets himself be manipulated by his client.
26. Successful counseling with minority group students will require more time and effort than with other students.
27. Since minority youth need structure in their lives, it is wise for the counselor to insist on strict scheduling.
28. Industry and government are more committed to finding a solution to the employment problems of minority youth than are the schools.

29. School counselors are limited in what they can do about minority youth problems because of lack of time and cooperation from industry.
30. High school counselors have a big job to do with respect to the employment problems of minority youth.
31. School teachers and counselors can apply the knowledge that they get from industry to the school situation.
32. School teachers and counselors generally have an explicit program for cooperating with industry.
33. School counselors' efforts should be directed toward those who have not achieved a significantly successful school experience.
34. School counseling should be directed toward the employment problems of youth at least as much as toward college prep counseling.
35. Because of the difficulties involved in minority youth counseling, no counselor should be expected to spend full time in this area.
36. Counselors and teachers should be expected to teach some minority youth how to meet common social expectations.
37. Personal sacrifices must be made by the counselor in the counseling of minority youth.
38. It is the counselor's job to give young people a sense of direction.
39. In some cases the need of the individual will have to be placed before the need of the job.
40. Since industry is paying the wages, it has a right to demand uniformly high performance without regard to individual differences.
41. Industry takes a dollars and cents approach to hiring.
42. Very often minority youth have to perform at a higher standard than non-minority workers.
43. Most of the solutions to the problems of the unemployed minority youth are being contributed by industry.
44. Although many people want to help minority youth, they become quickly discouraged.
45. A good solution to the problem of minority youth employment would be to relocate the youth into areas where there is more opportunity for employment.
46. Most federal employment legislation has been enacted to help the extremely poor.

47. Minority youths should be encouraged to seek jobs where they know their minority status will be accepted.
48. Occupations in which non-whites are now concentrated will be growing more slowly than other occupations.
49. A minority youth who is a high school drop-out has practically no chance of securing employment.
50. A high school graduate is more effective in his work, regardless of the work, than a non-graduate.
51. A high school graduate is more employable than a non-graduate.
52. Labor unions have been in the forefront with respect to improving employment opportunities for minorities.
53. Minority youth desire employment opportunities that provide for self-expression and interesting experience rather than opportunities that provide security and high pay.
54. In order to be a good industrial worker, one should enjoy hard work.
55. Everyone who really wants to find a job can find one.
56. There are enough jobs in the economy for everyone who wishes to work.
57. Because of minority youths' lower level of aspiration, counselors often feel unable to do much to help them.
58. Because of automation, industry is no longer capable, as they were in the past, of hiring minority youths.
59. Dropping out of high school is an indication that an individual is not able or not interested in learning.
60. A poor high school performance probably indicates poor performance on the job.

APPENDIX V

16-PF

1. Are you sometimes less considerate of other people than they are of you? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
2. Are you slow to say what you feel like saying, as compared to other people? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
3. If the two hands on a watch come together exactly every 65 minutes, the watch is running: (a) Slow; (b) On time; (c) Fast.
4. Do you get impatient to the point of fury when someone delays you? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
5. Do people say you are a person who will have his own way? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
6. Are you slow to complain if you are not given the right material to work with? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
7. At home, do you: (a) Use spare time chatting and relaxing; (b) In between; (c) Plan to fill it with special jobs.
8. Are you shy and careful in making friendships with new people? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
9. Do you think that what people try to say in poetry could be put just as well in plain English? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
10. Do you suspect that people who seem friendly to you are sometimes disloyal behind your back? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
11. Do even the most dramatic of your experiences during the year generally leave your personality much the same? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
12. Do you talk slowly? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
13. Do you have almost uncontrollable fears or distastes for some things, for example, an animal, a particular place, etc.? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
14. In a group, would you rather be the person who: (a) Works on technical advances; (b) In between; (c) Keeps the records and sees that rules are followed.
15. To decide how to vote on some social issue, would you read: (a) A well-reviewed, intelligent novel about it; (b) In between; (c) A testbook listing statistical and other facts.

16. Do you have dreams at night that are quite fantastic?
(a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
17. If you are left in a house absolutely alone for some time,
do you tend to get a little anxious? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes;
(c) No.
18. Does your mind fail to work as well at some times, as at others?
(a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
19. Do you oblige people by keeping appointments at times convenient
to them? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
20. Do you feel critical of many people's work? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally;
(c) No.
21. If Mary's mother is Fred's father's sister, what relation is Fred
to Mary's father? (a) Cousin; (b) Nephew; (c) Uncle.
22. Are you annoyed by people who say they can do things better than
others? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
23. Do you just love to travel almost anytime? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes;
(c) No.
24. Have you ever come near fainting at a sudden pain or at the sight
of blood? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
25. Do you spend much time in talking to people on local problems?
(a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
26. Would you rather be: (a) An engineer; (b) In between; (c) A teacher
of social theories.
27. Do you often have to hold yourself back from trying to straighten
out other people's problems? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
28. How many of your neighbors do you find boring to talk to?
(a) Most of them; (b) In between; (c) Practically none.
29. If there is propaganda hidden in your reading, are you apt not to
notice it unless someone points it out? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally;
(c) No.
30. Do you think that every story should point to a moral? (a) Yes;
(b) Sometimes; (c) No.
31. Does more trouble arise from people: (a) Changing and meddling with
methods that are already o.k.; (b) In between; (c) Turning down new,
up-to-date methods.

32. Do you sometimes hesitate to use your own ideas because they seem impractical? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
33. Do some prim people seem embarrassed when they see you coming? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
34. Can you depend on your memory not to let you down, even on details? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
35. When you know you're doing the right thing, do you always find it easy to do? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
36. Would you rather be: (a) In a business office organizing people; (b) In between; (c) An architect, drawing plans of buildings.
37. Black is to gray, as pain is to: (a) Wound; (b) Illness; (c) Discomfort.
38. Are you always a sound sleeper, who does not walk or talk in his sleep? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
39. Can you, if necessary, lie to a stranger and keep a straight face? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
40. Have you ever been active in organizing a club, team, or social group? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
41. Do you admire more: (a) A clever but undependable person; (b) In between; (c) An average person with will-power to resist temptations.
42. When you make a just complaint, do you always get satisfaction? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
43. Are you brought near to tears by discouraging circumstances? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
44. Do you think that many foreign countries are actually more friendly than we suppose? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
45. Are there times every day, when you like to enjoy your own thoughts, away from other people? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
46. Do you sometimes get exasperated with small rules and restrictions which, in calmer moments, you approve of? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
47. Do you think that much modern, so-called "progressive" education is not as good as the old common sense idea of "spare the rod and spoil the child"? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
48. Did you learn more in school by: (a) Going to class; (b) In between; (c) Reading a book.

49. Do you avoid getting involved in social responsibilities?
(a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
50. When a problem gets too hard and there is a lot to do, do you try?
(a) A different problem; (b) In between; (c) Another approach to the same problem.
51. Do you get strong emotional moods, for example, anxiety, laughter, anger, etc., from small happenings? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
52. Do you find it hard to admit when you are wrong? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
53. In a factory, would you rather be in charge of: (a) Machines; (b) In between; (c) Talking to and hiring new people.
54. Which word does not belong with the other two? (a) Cat; (b) Near; (c) Sun.
55. Is your health a bit uncertain, sometimes forcing you unexpectedly to alter your plans? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
56. Would you enjoy being waited on by personal servants? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
57. Do you feel awkward in company, so that you never seem to "show up" as well as you should? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
58. If you had more than enough income for your daily needs, should you give much of the rest to your Church or some such worthwhile cause? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
59. Do you sometimes get so angry that you think it best not to try to say anything? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
60. Can you do hard physical work without getting worn out as soon as most other people? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
61. Do you think that even when it becomes embarrassing, most witnesses tell the truth? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
62. Do you find it helpful to pace up and down when you think?
(a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
63. Do you think this country would be better to spend more on:
(a) Armaments; (b) In between; (c) Education.
64. Would you rather spend an evening: (a) In a hard game of cards; (b) In between; (c) Looking at photos of past vacations.

65. Would you rather read: (a) A good historical novel; (b) In between; (c) An essay by a scientist on harnessing world resources.
66. Are you really sure that there are more nice people than foolish people in the world? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
67. Are you more planful and energetic than other successful people in getting your work done? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
68. Are there times when you do not feel in a mood to see anyone? (a) Very rarely; (b) In between; (c) Quite often.
69. Have you ever, even for a moment, had hateful feelings toward your parents? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
70. Would you take a job where you listen all day to complaints from employees or customers? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
71. Which of the following is the opposite of the opposite of inexact? (a) Casual; (b) Accurate; (c) Rough.
72. Do you always have plenty of energy at those times when you most need it? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
73. Would you feel embarrassed joining a nudist colony? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
74. Do you seek large gatherings, like parties or dances? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
75. Do you think: (a) Some jobs don't need to be done as carefully as others; (b) In between; (c) Any job should be done thoroughly if you do it at all.
76. When you walk down the street, do you sometimes dislike the way some people look at you? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
77. Which would you rather be: (a) A bishop; (b) In between; (c) A colonel.
78. If a neighbor keeps cheating you over small things, do you feel it is better to humor him than show him up? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
79. Would you rather see: (a) A good movie on hardy pioneering days; (b) A clever movie farce or skit on the society of the future.
80. When you have been put in charge of something, do you insist either on having your own way or resigning? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.

81. When, in your opinion, someone shows bad manners, do you:
(a) Say nothing, because you are probably being fussy; (b) In between;
(c) Let the person see clearly what you think.
82. When you are introduced to someone, would you rather: (a) Have a friendly argument on politics and social views; (b) In between;
(c) Have him tell you a few jokes.
83. Do you think that it is cruel to vaccinate small children, and that parents should have the right to ask for vaccination to be put off? (a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
84. Is it better to believe in: (a) Insurance; (b) In between;
(c) Personal skill.
85. When you are going to catch a train, do you get a little hurried, tense, or anxious, though you know you have enough time?
(a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
86. At the present time, is your memory better than it ever was?
(a) Yes; (b) In between; (c) No.
87. Could you stand living alone, far from anyone else, like a hermit?
(a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
88. If a man said the sky was down and winter was hot, what would he call a criminal? (a) A gangster; (b) A saint; (c) A cloud.
89. When you see "sloppy," untidy people, do you: (a) Accept it;
(b) In between; (c) Feel disgusted and annoyed.
90. Do you sometimes try too much to be nice to waiters and waitresses:
(a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
91. At a party, do you prefer to let others start telling the jokes and stories? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
92. Do you think people should observe moral laws more strictly?
(a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
93. Are most of the people you know really glad to meet you at a party?
(a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
94. Would you rather exercise by: (a) Fencing and dancing; (b) In between;
(c) Boxing and baseball.
95. Do you smile to yourself at the big differences between what people do and what they say they do? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
96. As a child, did you feel sad to leave home and go to school each day?
(a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.

97. What do you do if a remark you make is ignored? (a) Let it go; (b) In between; (c) Repeat it until people catch on.
98. Do you find that you need to avoid excitement because it wears you out? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
99. If you could, which would you rather play? (a) Chess; (b) In between; (c) Bowling.
100. When you plan to do something yourself, do you try to do it alone, never getting outside help? (a) Yes; (b) Occasionally; (c) No.
101. Do you refuse to spend time thinking about "what might have been"? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.
102. Are you a person who easily drops worries and responsibilities? (a) Yes; (b) Sometimes; (c) No.

APPENDIX VI

PROJECT: INSPIRE - 1969
Participant Responses

A. General Reaction to the Program:

1. The Institute has been an informative, provocative, and sensitizing experience. It has been delightfully fatiguing yet dramatically enlightening to group speakers as well as participants. I can only endorse an expanding of the number of participants and/or the number of such institutes in order to further the cause for which the program was initiated.
2. The program was an excellent experience to further my understanding and make me aware of many aspects of vocations and minority groups. I think it changed many attitudes in many people and will definitely make them more conscious of the problems when they deal with their students as well as the public. This "course" was more informative and exciting than any course taken in the area of teaching the inner-city child. I can't wait to get back to the classroom and to start getting many more interested for next year's program.
3. Excellent project, I brought my thoughts and ideas home with me all week. At times I was unable to drop these thoughts. I thought I knew the problem of race, I now realize how much I didn't know. Truly an "inspiring" project.
4. The program has been of immense value to me as an individual. It has enabled me to zero in on the entire spectrum of racism within American society as well as the more limited area of minority employment. I intend to pursue more fully the psychology of racism. Hopefully I will then be able to take an active part in the "Revolution of Racial Attitudes." The information concerning community resources which I can now share with our church group is in itself invaluable.
5. I felt that Project Inspire was one of the best "courses" I have participated in. Perhaps, the best rating for the course is that it was "draining" because this meant that people responded to people.
6. The program was to a great extent - inspirational. I have come in contact with things and with people who have truly given me a deeper insight and a greater understanding of the drives and desires of the non-whites in our society. I honestly would encourage that every teacher and guidance counselor in our state, and perhaps in the nation, be allowed to participate in a project

similar to this one. I think a good deal of the problem of non-whites could be eliminated by educators going back to classrooms and telling it "like it is" without bias and/or prejudice.

7. Probably the most meaningful activity I have ever participated in on the graduate and undergraduate level. I was extremely involved - this has turned out to be what I had not expected at all.
8. Intensive, well-planned and meaningful with many personal contacts which truly inspired - Project Inspire. I felt the interaction of the participants was equally enlightening.
9. I'm glad I had the chance to attend and be a part of this week. Got mad and shook up - Reacted happily - learned a lot. Have better understanding of problems discussed now - Did not agree with everything but at least will now be more productive in my class room.
10. It is an excellent program because it enlightens school teachers and administrators to explore new ways of solving problems affecting the minority group.
11. This was by far the most interesting, valuable, soul-searching type of program I have ever been fortunate enough to be involved in. It showed a great amount of careful planning and my only question is, "How can we get across some of what we got out of this to the students, friends, and our colleagues?"
12. My general reaction is in the form of a question. How can I use what has transpired in a most meaningful way? Are there any limits to one being committed? How can we extend ourselves beyond what is thought to be required? When does a person become a believer - philosophy becomes action rather than thought?
13. Excellent program - a marathon, most inspiring, left us with the realization that there is a definite need for attitudinal changes of white as well as non-white. A feeling that eventually mutual understanding will bring mutual respect. I am leaving behind this week with the optimistic hope that there can and will be a peaceful social change in, if not this generation, at least in the next generation - Very well planned.
14. Program is strong in most areas. There is diversification of approach and point of view. Participants cover a range of school situations and perspectives.

15. Dynamic, emotionally packed program - Excellent program, exhausting both physically and emotionally but never boring - Well set up but not enough time to absorb all that was presented.
16. The week has been a tiring emotional experience, having elements of satisfaction, irritation, accomplishment, frustration, uncomfortable closeness, and anger. Several of the speakers have demonstrated an ease in handling a touchy situation - others have shown their lack of ease in talking to a group of blacks and whites. The discussions were dominated by a certain few individuals who asked the same relative questions of each speaker. Many of the questions took on the approach of personal attack which to me denies the right of personal human dignity. I do think that foreman leaders could have controlled this. Most businesses are aware and are making an effort. Blacks don't want to wait.
17. It has inspired me to take stock of myself and to face and accept the charges that the business world has made. I feel as a teacher that I must now take a larger role in preparing our youth not college bound to find a role or place in our community where he can be most productive and appreciated. I also feel that it is my duty to charge industry to accept a bigger role of engulfing our groups (young & old) to accept and appreciate our sub-cultural groups.
18. Great insight into some of the basic problems that have caused the current problems of the minorities. Confirmation of the concern, yet superficial involvement of the business community. Too much repetition of materials especially of superficial aspects of the problem and length of descriptions of job opportunities.
19. Excellent, terrific, fantastic, outstanding, and exhibiting. The program was most enlightening for me since my associations with the blacks in the past have been withdrawn, although honestly I have considered myself a completely integrated person and have expressed this fact. I have benefitted a great deal in learning just terminology that is so important in speaking to and of our black brothers and sisters.
20. I'm exhausted but it's a good feeling - an impression has been made and I feel like I've really been doing something important. The speakers were men who really had something to say, a message and opinion to relate, and they attained their goal. I must say, however, that my most positive reaction is to the people whom I've met. I'm just sorry that we didn't have an opportunity to sit and talk more, to exchange views and opinions. I loved the whole experience. I've learned more about myself and the children I wish to work with.

21. I think the program, overall, was very informative to all participants. In talking to other members of the program I found everyone learned some important facts. This includes both black and white participants. The information learned can be applied immediately in the classroom.
22. Project Inspire was a very inspiring opportunity for me personally. I was awakened and acquainted with the real problems of urban education, children, and environment. My reaction to the people whom it was my good fortune to associate with during this week were really a source of great emulation for me, as I have never seen so many truly dedicated people--totally open and responsive to the real needs of a very real world. The program was very well organized and in content I feel there was little omitted that would be of assistance to teachers or counselors.
23. My reaction to the program is completely favorable. It meets a need in a field where very little if anything has been done before. In particular the bringing together of individuals of adverse backgrounds, races, ages, and through a group and active participation process force them, so to speak, to involve themselves, is something that has not been done before. The experience has very definitely led to the desired goal--to inspire.
24. The dialogue with minority representatives as well as members of the student group which revealed basic attitudes that are the root of the whole racist problem. I believe we (the student group) "enlightened" the business man and that the workers and the student group from Weaver were extremely helpful to us.
25. EXCELLENT! The most valuable training I have had in counselor education. Absolutely a must for anyone working in guidance in greater Hartford area.
26. The make-up of personalities within the group really meshed. (Constructive results) - The lack of structure within our "structured week" made for "result-going" setting i.e. Our schedule was well planned but allowed for creative thought and discussion - The rapport established between education and business started to be established. (Our "on-going" committee is going to get results.)
27. Program "Inspire" was very informative and interesting. Chance to associate with others who have same concern and able to exchange ideas. In some cases - perhaps some lost sight of idea that each is entitled to own opinions and we should respect opinions of others. In some instances I would not take the conduct or poor manners of people. In some instances others were made uncomfortable by the type of behavior. Many disagreed with others but did it in a dignified way. There is a way to debate, etc.--We were all educators and must keep this in mind. I enjoyed the week and have, I hope, grown more aware of the problems of others and hope to be able to do something about it. Chance to see that others care and are doing something about it.

28. Project Inspire met the objectives that I hoped would come out of the program. The goals I set for myself are well on their way as a result of this experience I have had during the past week. In summary my overall reaction is one of one hundred percent endorsement for the program. I can't put my finger on the one best aspect of the program. The panel of students from Weaver high was excellent. Several of the speakers were excellent. But if I had to be tied down to one I feel the composition of the participants had a great deal to do with the success of the program. I feel the weakest phase of the program was its length.
29. I feel that Project Inspire has been and is a very worthwhile program. It has taught me a great deal about our employment problems here in Hartford, especially concerning minority groups.
30. Intensive, frank, enlightening. I have learned more and enjoyed this week more than any previous educational experience.
31. Lot what I expected, but quite overwhelming! And enlightening.
32. This program has been extremely excellent. I don't know if it started out with the idea in mind of becoming a sensitivity program, but it worked out that way and this added to its greatness. The week has been a physically exhausting, emotionally draining, and intellectually stimulating week. It was a very informative and productive program that has been enlightening for many of the people, regardless of what feelings and/or opinions they (we) had before the week started.
33. A real crack program. Tiring, but informative. Wish we had more time for real gut discussions along with the key speakers. Feel there are questions in some minds that need some clearing up.
34. Great experience for learning! Much learning from participants. There seems to be a lack of positive action direction. The problems were repeated too often. Very little discussion on prevention of problems.
35. The program was very good in that we heard all kinds of business give their views and including the boys and girls. However, I feel that many times the business speakers were a repeat of each other. This type of program is much better done in this manner than by taking a course in this area.
36. The program has merits--however, not enough time was given for group discussions. In group discussions you have a greater give and take. Also I think that there should be certain stipulations in behavioral patterns in questions asked to the speakers.
37. Enlightening, but very tiring. I feel completely drained, but quite INSPIRED! Excellent!

38. One of the most unusual experiences of my adult professional life; and certainly the most stimulating "course" I have ever taken. I have far more to say about this later.
39. Informative--provocative, the type of thing that (needless to say) we need more of.
40. Very thoroughly prepared and a good cross section of businesses and agencies represented.
41. Project Inspire was as the name stated--Inspirational. I enjoyed it tremendously and felt that the majority of the speakers were exceptional. The best course I've had.
42. Very positive, motivationally speaking.
43. Some of the speakers were simply outstanding, whereas others were not as informative and could well have been left out.
44. Most profitable.

